

The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 4

Continuing The Historical Outlook

APRIL, 1949

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.50 a year, single numbers 35 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

809-811 North 19th Street

Philadelphia 30, Pa.

The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1949

Forgotten Canons of Historical Writing: A Reappraisal of Edward Gibbon

LEONARD PRICE STAVISKY

State Teachers College, Oswego, New York

Since the advent of the specialized monograph, the older values of historical writing have often been ignored. Devoting their attention to progressively smaller units, modern historians have sought as the ideal the intense and exhaustive study of limited areas of operation. Coincidental with the retreat from the broader interpretation of the past has been a departure from the concept that history, in the last analysis, represents a significant branch of literature. With canons of scientific scholarship as the principal objective, the emphasis upon narrative style has declined in relative importance. Thus, the modern standards of historiography seem to encourage a concentration of subject matter, a tempering of strong opinion, and a restrained literary approach.

Presented as an isolated condition, this trend is not readily apparent. However, if considered in the light of a previous type of scholarship, the changes can be viewed in bold relief. As representative of a "forgotten" system, Edward Gibbon—product of the Enlightenment—stands alone. Conforming to the judgment of E. A. Freeman that the only real function of historical writers is that of "commentators, illustrators, harmonizers, of the original texts," Gibbon was among the finest literary historians produced by the English-speaking world. As an unquestionable master of the mother tongue, he included in his following the general reading public as well as the professional writer. Gibbon recognized that the historian is also an author, with the obligation to write sound and well-balanced literature. Only through this frame of reference can his lasting success be understood.

The reputation of Edward Gibbon as an historian is dependent upon a single book. Prior to the conception of his master work, his only published studies had been several essays in literature written in French, and a controversial paper entitled, "Critical Observations on the Sixth Book of the Aeneid," the latter appearing in 1770. Not until the publication of *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* did the author really come into his own. Yet even if he had never written an additional line, his fame would still be secure. From the beginning, Gibbon's *History* met with a reception not shared by many others. Almost immediately the first edition was exhausted, and subsequent issues still failed to comply with the demand. In the author's own words, his book was "on every table, and almost on every toilette." Tributes, and in some cases trenchant criticism, poured in from all sides. A favorable comment from David Hume, Gibbon later noted, "overpaid the labour of ten years."

The appearance of the first volume of the work in February, 1776, was a landmark in historiography, exercising significant influence upon future studies. Prior to this date the history of ancient Rome had remained largely unwritten. The early writers, such as Caesar and Tacitus, were not historians in the true sense of the term. Their contributions approximated contemporaneous observations rather than narratives of events long gone by, derived from the perspective of time. One is almost compelled to agree with Allen Nevins in viewing Gibbon as "a veritable Columbus, who travelled across wider reaches than any predecessor." Certainly, Gibbon was the first to bridge the gap between

antiquity and the modern world in any comprehensive manner. The title of the book fails to indicate properly the magnitude of the investigation. His history of Rome extends from the age of the Emperor Trajan, in the second century after the birth of Christ, to the fall of Constantinople, a span of over thirteen hundred years, encompassing the civil wars between rival claimants to the throne, the rise of Christianity and the subsequent decline of paganism, the founding of an Eastern Empire, the barbarian invasions, the decadence of the West and the continuation of Byzantium, the expansion of Islam, and the Crusades. The scope of the subject, and its endless ramifications, make the work a virtual portrait of western history. Edward Gibbon was no more a specialist in his own day than H. G. Wells was in ours.

Just as Gibbon's preference for a broad area of concentration runs contrary to modern standards of scholarship, so his attitude of mind likewise seems repugnant to our criteria. In this day of glorification of the "dispassionate" study, the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* stands manifestly biased in its approach. Nowhere was this quality more discernible than in the discussion of the factors promoting the genesis and development of the Christian religion, admittedly the most controversial sections of his entire work. Steeped in certain definite preconceptions, Gibbon approached the subject with anything but a judicious point of view. In his *Memoirs*, written more than a decade later, this prejudice was clearly stated. "I believed," he declared, "as I still believe, that the propagation of the gospel and triumph of the Church are inseparably connected with the decline of the Roman Monarchy."

To the usual explanation of Divine Will as the reason for the rapid dissemination of Christianity, Gibbon attached certain secondary or human causes that contributed to the remarkable growth. As outlined in the fifteenth chapter of his *History*, the first of these causes was the inflexible and intolerant zeal of the Christians, derived from Judaism, but purified by the narrow and unsocial spirit which deterred the Gentiles from accepting the Hebrew faith. Secondly, he considered the doctrine of the immortality of the soul to have been a potent factor, and one which appealed to the poor and

enslaved in all lands. In the third place, the supernatural powers ascribed to the primitive Church harmonized with the popular belief in miracles. Fourthly, the pure and austere moral standards of Christianity were in agreement with the desire for perfection of the early converts, whose own virtues the author believed had been guarded by poverty and ignorance. Finally, the presence of the Christian state within the geographic heart of the centralized Roman Empire made its expansion all the more easy.

The mere injection of these secondary causes leaves little doubt regarding Gibbon's position. Rather than openly denounce the Christian organization, he sought to incriminate it through the use of sarcasm and subtle innuendo. Completely one-sided in approach, and lacking in understanding of the Church, the religious portions of the work provoked a storm of criticism. Henry E. Davis, a B.A. and member of Balliol College, Oxford, accused the author of misrepresentation, inaccuracy, and plagiarism. The need for making any reference whatsoever to the rise and progress of Christianity, Davis contended, was unnecessary, much less "so long a digression." In a similar vein James Chelsum, student of Christ Church College, traced Gibbon's sources, and declared him guilty of forming decisions on "slight examination" and totally lacking the qualities of an impartial inquirer, the discernment of a scholar, and the fidelity of an historian. Significantly, certain later editions entirely omitted the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters of the *History*.

The type of resentment which he encountered came as a surprise to Gibbon. "Had I believed that the majority of English readers were so fondly attached even to the name and shadow of Christianity," he later confessed, "I might perhaps have softened the two invidious chapters. . . . But the shaft was shot, the alarm was sounded, and I could only rejoice that if the voice of our priests was clamorous and bitter, their hands were disarmed of the powers of prosecution." For a time he maintained an air of casual aloofness. On the few occasions when he did refer to his adversaries, Gibbon contemptuously dismissed their remarks. In a letter to his stepmother, dated November 29, 1776, he wrote:

Two answers (which you perhaps have

seen), one from Mr. Chelsham [sic] of Oxford, the other from Dr. Watson of Cambridge, are already born, and I believe the former is choleric, the latter civil, and both too dull to deserve your notice.

Finally, however, Gibbon was persuaded to reply publicly to his critics. The result was a pamphlet entitled *A Vindication of Some Passages in the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Chapters*, purposely issued in octavo, lest it be bound with the quarto edition of the *History*. To the end he prided himself on "giving" a royal pension to Mr. Davis and helping make Dr. Watson a bishop. A victory over these antagonists, Gibbon declared in his *Memoirs*, was a sufficient humiliation.

The question of why the historian found such delight in challenging the orthodox explanation for the progress of Christianity inevitably arises. Confined to bed because of ill-health during the greater part of his youth, he had always been fond of reading religious disputation. "The blind activity of idleness," he once remarked, "urged me to advance without armour into the dangerous mazes of controversy; and at the age of sixteen, I bewildered myself in the errors of the church of Rome." Yet aside from the natural inquisitiveness of youth in forbidden matters, other factors remain to be considered. As a criticism of the eighteenth century, Gibbon was unquestionably influenced by the Rationalists' attack upon all forms of "unnatural" religion, and this experience was of course reflected in his writings. Then too, if such a psychological phenomenon could occur, Gibbon seemed to have fallen in love with the splendor that was once Rome. Throughout the study his eyes were always focused upon the ancient capital and his sympathies were always with its original inhabitants. During his first visit to that metropolis in October 1764, he felt that he that metropolis in October, 1764, he felt that he wrote that "whatever ideas books may have given us of the greatness of that people, their accounts fall infinitely short of the picture of its ruins. I am convinced there never . . . existed such a nation, and I hope, for the happiness of mankind, there never will again."

Here, then, was a veritable Pygmalion, enthralled by a dream of the past, although terrified by its majesty. The author's exaltation of

his theme was perhaps analogous to Machiavelli's glorification of a visionary Italian state. As another Englishman, Walter Bagehot, observed, Gibbon "did not know the difference between himself and the Roman Empire"; certainly, a close identification is obvious. To such a man Christianity, and the Germanic invaders as well, in altering the metaphysical and ethnic ideals of the Romans, were the enemy. Both were interlopers, destroying the greatness of the earlier civilization, and as such, neither was treated with sympathetic understanding. If it had been possible, Gibbon would have readily turned back the clock eighteen centuries. The harm, however, could not be undone, and resentment still burned in his breast.

The abandonment of true catholicity of scholarship made his book amazingly provocative, stirring the imagination and often defying the opinions of the reader. The author of *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* was one of those persons who virtually compels his audience to take sides and either whole-heartedly accept or reject his thesis. By assuming a partisan viewpoint, he succeeded in quickening the story and vivifying the events portrayed. The casual reader, searching for intellectual stimulation, might assert that the end justified the means. On the other hand, the present-day historian, desirous of objectivity, will find Mr. Gibbon totally oblivious of this virtue.

In much the same way that modern scholars have eschewed the rigid preconceptions of the man, his style of writing has similarly fallen into disfavor. Daring in the use of generalizations and inclined to resort to picturesque and dramatic illustrations, Gibbon was at all times the artist. Majestic, formal, pompous, euphuistic and urbane, never did he relax for even a moment. The ordinary faults of many writers seemed entirely absent from his account. His exhibition was resplendent and ostentatious, deliberate rather than natural, and consistently an illustration of literary finesse. As Gibbon himself remarked: "The style of an author should be the image of his mind, but the choice and command of language is the fruit of exercise." In our day of concise and restrained written form, the contrast appears most striking.

While entire sections of the *History* have since been outdated and challenged, and today

Gibbon represents almost a "forgotten" school of historiography, his fame as an author has not been denied. Few historians of any age can escape the ravages of time, and the writings of most become rapidly obsolete as new sources and studies are introduced. The ability to transcend the limitations of time and place, and remain in the public's eye, is an attribute so rare that virtually every generation must rewrite its histories. Edward Gibbon has been one of these unusual exceptions, overcoming all attempts to confine his popularity to the late eighteenth century. With a large following throughout the world, he has best illustrated his own dictum that history "is the most popular species of writing, since it can adapt itself to the highest or lowest capacity." Gibbons' *History* is an established classic, but a very live one, retaining the vitality of youth. Unlike many others it has not been relegated to a dust-covered shelf as a collector's oddity. For 170 years, successive generations of readers have been attracted to its elaborate scope and vigorous narrative style. If it has lost any prestige in our learned circles, it is because our whole train of thought has been altered. Historians and social scientists of today reject the premise that they write to validate a desired point of view. The ideals of objectivity, requiring that the author refrain from advancing a thesis prior to the complete sifting of data, have taken hold. However, until the time that it becomes possible to divorce completely an individual's personality, training, and environment from his interpretation, historical writing will remain a subjective process, and the works of Edward Gibbon, one may safely speculate, will

continue to be read.

Viewed in retrospect, there is much that the young historian can derive from a consideration of Gibbon's volumes. In the first place, a dissatisfaction with the scanty treatment which his subject had previously received and a willingness to explore virgin fields where no precedent existed to guide his labors, were unquestionably characteristic of the author. A pioneer in his field, he was compelled by necessity to be strikingly original, indicating by his efforts new horizons for subsequent students to conquer. His research has been superseded, but it cannot be forgotten. As Freeman said: "Whatever else we read, we must read Gibbon too."

Greater attention to Edward Gibbon would also do much to combat the pernicious effects of contemporary "monography." Delimited scientific research is the backbone of historical discovery, true enough, but within recent years it repeatedly has been relegated to a mere note-taking procedure, stripped of wider perspective, and totally devoid of readability. Coincidental with the activities of specialists engaged in narrow and often isolated research, our educational progress demands synthesizers who will coordinate the accomplishments of technicians into a meaningful and lucid pattern. Even in his day, Gibbon was mindful of the importance of creating scholarly, well-written histories, retaining a broad popular appeal. Just as Prometheus stole the monopoly of fire from the gods of Greek mythology, so today persons are needed to disseminate the gifts of historical scholarship among a wider reading public than the comparative handful of members of our professional guilds.

Henry Immanuel Schmidt: Pioneer American Historian of Education

ELBERT VAUGHAN WILLS

Gatesville, North Carolina

Among treatises in English on the history of education, the earliest which has continued to be well-known and to exert some measure of influence down to the present time is Robert H. Quick's *Essays on Educational Reformers*,

the first edition of which appeared in England in 1868. Quick's work was reprinted in America by several publishers and, on the mounting wave of interest in the training of prospective teachers and the professional growth of teach-

ers in service, it attained in this country a measure of influence which far outstripped that which fell to its lot in the land of its origin. It was revised and considerably expanded in 1890, and it is generally in this form that it is known to the present generation.

Earlier American works on the history of education, however, while important in their time, tended in later years to be overlooked and quite generally forgotten. With one of these we are here concerned, namely, the sketch of the history of education included in Henry Immanuel Schmidt's *Education, Part I: History of Education, Ancient and Modern. Part II: A Plan of Culture and Instruction, Based on Christian Principles, and Designed to Aid in the Right Education of Youth, Physically, Intellectually, and Morally*, which was published in New York under the Anglicized form of the author's name, "H. I. Smith," in 1842.

Henry Immanuel Schmidt was born at Nazareth, Pa., in 1806. His education was received at the Moravian *Paedagogium* and Theological Seminary, then located at Nazareth. He became a Lutheran clergyman in 1829. At the time of the publication of his *Education*, he was serving as Professor of Modern Languages in Pennsylvania College (now Gettysburg College), at Gettysburg, Pa., and as Professor of German Language and Literature in the Gettysburg Theological Seminary. In 1848, he became Professor of German Language and Literature in Columbia College (now Columbia University), in New York City, serving in this capacity until 1880. Schmidt died in 1889.

Interest in educational history in English-speaking countries was in an inchoate stage when Schmidt wrote. Even a quarter of a century after the publication of Schmidt's work, when Quick brought out his *Essays*, he observed, with reference to his British environment, that "There are countries where it would be considered a truism that a teacher in order to exercise his profession intelligently should know something about the chief authorities in it. Here, however, I suppose such an assertion will seem paradoxical; but there is a good deal to be said in defense of it." With reference to educational history, he commented that "not only good books but all books are in German or some other foreign language."

Schmidt's work was based upon the German

authorities standard at the time. The German literature of the history of education may be traced back to Daniel Georg Morhof's *Polyhistor*, published 1688-1707, an encyclopedic treatment of general literature, which dealt with the history of pedagogy, and in particular with the post-Reformation didactic. The next contribution of significance was that of C. E. Mangelsdorf, which appeared in 1779. Fr. H. Christian Schwarz, an educator and administrator of wide experience, made the first attempt at a comprehensive and penetrating presentation of the science of education in his *Educational Theory (Erziehungslehre)*, the first part of which was published in 1802, and to which he added an historical part, later greatly enlarged and improved. Schwarz's work possessed the merit and practical value of setting the history of education in organic connection with educational theory. August Hermann Niemeyer first published his *Principles of Education and Instruction* in 1796. With later revisions of this work he included, and amplified in successive editions, a *Survey of the General History of Education and Instruction*. In the ninth edition of the *Principles*, published after the death of its author and revised by his son, H. A. Niemeyer, this survey was expanded into a real compendium of the history of education.

As sources, Schmidt relied mainly upon Schwarz and Niemeyer and upon the *Levana* of Johann Paul Friedrich Richter. In his small volume of 340 pages, 155 pages are devoted to the sketch of the history of education. With reference to this part of the work, he says in his preface that he "ventures to flatter himself that the history of education, which constitutes the first part of this book, will be acceptable to the friends of education and the public in general, as he is not aware that any similar attempt is extant in the English language."

Schmidt includes brief sketches of education among the peoples of eastern Asia, those, namely, of India, China and Japan; those of central Asia, comprehending the Babylonians, Chaldeans, Medes and Persians, the account of Persian education being quoted from Xenophon's *Cyropaedia*; the Israelites or Hebrews; and those of Africa, comprising the Ethiopians and the Egyptians. The peoples of the western division of Asia, namely, the Phoenicians, the Carthaginians, the Lydians, the Phrygians and

the Scythians, are enumerated with the statement that "we know nothing, except by inference, respecting the education of these nations." (p. 32) There is a succinct but comprehensive account of education in Greece and Rome, which differs less from the treatment of the subject by later historians than do other portions of the work. A short chapter is devoted to Arabian culture dealing mainly with the learning and scholarly effort of the Mohammedans in Arabia, Syria and Persia, in Egypt and in Spain, with a brief description of their more formal agencies of education, and some incidental mention of the utilization of their libraries and schools of learning by Christians.

The second major division of Schmidt's historical sketch is entitled, "The Christian World," and occupies 66 pages. In introducing the new era, he contrasts the intellectual degeneracy and moral corruption leading to the decay and downfall of Greek and Roman civilization with the divine energy which came to men in the Christian religion. Next is described the growth, progress and decline of the Catechetical School of Alexandria as a higher institution for Christian teachers, under its first head, Pantaenus, and under his successors, particularly Clement and Origen.

There are brief recountals of the growth of imperial schools in the principal cities of the Roman Empire, and of the schools of the rhetoricians and the grammarians in the provinces. The rise of the medieval universities is then dealt with, the derivation of their organization being traced in part to the imperial schools and in part to the ancient medical schools. The wild and lawless student life that often characterized them is attributed to the example of Athens in its later times. Here the reader detects an important omission in the absence of a treatment of the rise of the cathedral schools of the Middle Ages and their importance as forerunners of the universities.

The rise of Monasticism is sketched, with incidental mention of the establishment of monastic schools and the services of the monks in the advancement of education and general culture. There does not emerge, however, a clear recognition of the importance of monastic education as a factor in the milieu from which the university grew. The efforts of Charlemagne in behalf of educational reform, the knightly edu-

cation of chivalry, and the growth of burgher schools in the commercial cities are likewise overlooked.

The discussion of pedagogic literature and method deals concisely with the summaries of the Seven Liberal Arts which were used as the basis of instruction, namely, the *Satyricon* of Martianus Capella, embracing *The Nuptials of Philology and Mercury* and the individual books devoted to the Seven Liberal Arts; the school-books of Boethius, Cassiodorus and Isidore of Seville; the encyclopedic works of the Venerable Bede and Rhabanus Maurus; the Latin grammars of Donatus, Priscian, Diomedes and Alexander de Villa Dei; the reform of sacred music by Gregory the Great; Jewish and Arabian contributions to the study and practice of medicine; theological study, particularly at the University of Paris; the encyclopedic *Speculum Majus* of Vincent of Beauvais, and his pedagogical work on the education of the children of kings.

In his discussion of the Renaissance, Schmidt's emphasis is upon its importance as a preparation for the religious Reformation "by liberating, to a great extent, from the bondage of superstition, numbers whose influence would be widely felt; and by introducing at the universities better things in place of the dialectic games of the scholastics." (p. 119) The leaders of the Italian Renaissance, Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio; the Mantuan scholar and educator, Vittorino da Feltre; and the Florentine classical scholar, Niccolo de' Niccoli, are briefly characterized. The chief figures in the movement north of the Alps, Erasmus and Reuchlin, together with Colet and Vives, whose work was more specifically educational, are dealt with. The services of the post-Reformation schoolmen, Sturm and Trotzendorf, are touched upon, and the establishment of the new culture in western Europe is thus summarized:

The classic literature was the cultivating principle, and with this the Reformation formed an intimate alliance. The Protestant teachers too well appreciated the high aim which the mind, imbued with the Grecian and Roman literature, attains, that they should not have made it the principal subject of the instruction of youth. Those schoolmen should not, therefore, be blamed, if they were too partially devoted to this one subject.

Their labours hastened the coming of that day, in which profound reflection, and a comprehensive, experimental development of principles led to the adoption of an enlarged, and liberal, and sound method, embracing every department of the culture of man. (p. 122)

After a brief reference to the enlarged and improved system of education among the Catholics which was an outgrowth of the Counter-Reformation, and to the work of the Jesuits as the educators of the Roman Catholic world, Schmidt turns to a consideration of lower schools in city and country. "Since the emancipation of educational culture," he says, "down to the beginning of the seventeenth century, many improvements had been made, and a better order of things had supervened. There were public schools of different kinds, higher and lower, both in cities and in the country; and here and there, also, female seminaries." (p. 123) A clear delineation of the types and characteristics of these schools, however, is lacking.

Concerning the growth and improvement of education resulting from the Reformation, Schmidt says:

A new and highly important addition had been made in religious instruction. With a view to this, the reformers, or, rather, the great reformer himself, had drawn up and introduced the catechism; and, lastly, the progress of culture to greater freedom became manifest in the reference which school-instruction had to the common affairs of life. (p. 124)

Coming to the age of the great methodic pedagogists, Schmidt distinguishes an earlier period of inquiry and experiment and a later epoch of more complete development, the second being but imperfectly realized. Innovators with reference to method were Lord Bacon, Wolfgang Ratich, John Amos Comenius, Michel de Montaigne and John Locke. The reader notes the absence of a discussion of the contribution of Milton to education. The pedagogical principles of Locke are summarized with unfavorable criticism of only one, namely, that which finds in desire of praise and applause the strongest motive in stimulating the young to strive for perfection. "If it be the strongest," Schmidt observes, "it would be a monstrous

pedagogic error to regard it as the best." (p. 133) This criticism reflects Schmidt's Pietistic leaning, a characteristic so fundamental in his intellectual orientation as to justify a brief digression to review the nature of Pietism and the circumstances which made it a formative influence in Schmidt's early training.

Pietism was a movement directed toward the revivification of the spiritual life of the Lutheran churches of Germany, through emphasis, not upon dogma, but upon the practical realization of the Christian life. German Pietism began about 1670 with Philipp Jakob Spener, then a pastor at Frankfort on the Main. In purpose the movement resembled that of the Catholic Jansenists or Port Royalists in France and the Netherlands, in so far as concerns the emphasis of the latter upon greater practical piety. In its origin it was probably influenced by mysticism and by English Puritanism. The most influential of the Pietists in relation to education was August Hermann Francke. First as a *Privatdocent* in the University of Leipzig, and later in Hamburg, where he taught in a private school, he furthered the Pietistic reform.

The University of Halle was opened under Pietistic influence in 1694. Here Francke became Professor of Greek and Oriental Languages and later Professor of Theology. He also served as pastor of a church in a suburban village, and out of his ministration in this capacity grew the beginnings of the philanthropic and educational effort which eventuated in the great institutions that perpetuated his influence and that of Pietism. These included the Orphan House, elementary and secondary schools and a pedagogical class in which Francke trained the more promising of his theological students for the work of teaching in his schools.

Count Nikolaus Ludwig von Zinzendorf, a godson of Spener, who had spent six years in early life at Halle under the care of Francke, brought about a restoration of the Church of the Bohemian and Moravian Brethren, which had been crushed in the lands of its origin by the Counter-Reformation. In 1722, he settled on his estate in Upper Lusatia a company of Moravian refugees. To this settlement, which was known as Herrnhut, many other refugees came. There emerged a renewed Moravian church, influenced by the Pietistic views of its

patron. Through John Wesley's contacts with Zinzendorf and other Moravian leaders, and through his visit to Herrnhut, Pietism influenced the Wesleyan movement in England.

In 1741, Zinzendorf came to America, where he was instrumental in the development of the settlements which constituted the centers of Moravian religious and social life and educational effort. At the same time, his indifference to theological dogma and to confessional formularies led to efforts at denominational syncretism which involved him in controversies with the Lutheran and Reformed groups, particularly with the Lutheran organizer, Henry Melchior Muhlenberg, who himself had been trained under Pietistic influences. Zinzendorf returned to Europe in 1743. There was thus transmitted to the Moravian schools in which Schmidt was trained a pronounced heritage of Pietism. Another source of similar influence is found in the fact that August Hermann Niemeyer, whose historical work, as we have noted, constituted one of Schmidt's sources, had come under the influence of the Franckean educational system.

Returning to Schmidt's condemnation of desire for approval as an educational motive, he quotes elsewhere an observation of Spener's that "whereas, in domestic education, the boys are chiefly urged to do what is required of them by stimulating their desire of praise and distinction, whereby they are, at the same time, filled with the unhappy seeds of ambition, it grieves me that the same procedure is continued in the schools." (p. 141) A similar view was expressed by the Jansenist, Charles Rollin.

The efforts of the methodic pedagogists were not immediately productive of fruitful results. Schmidt states:

Had the classics been studied in the right spirit, and the Gospel appreciated and improved as it ought to be, the result would have been different: but this was not done. The fundamental principle of human culture had not even been, as yet, clearly apprehended, to say nothing of its being brought into connection with the increase of knowledge. If there had not been an actual retrograde movement, it is certain that the root of culture, religion, and the sweet odour of its developed blossom, taste, had, notwithstanding the evident increase of knowledge,

rather retrograded than advanced. The evidence of this is found in the controversies of the theologians and of the philologists in the seventeenth century and even later." (pp. 133-134)

These conditions of formalism and controversy in religion and pedantry in education were controverted by two men, one a Protestant, Philipp Jakob Spener, the founder of Pietism; the other a Catholic, François de Salignac de la Mothe Fénelon, the author of the *Education of Girls*, the first systematic treatment of its subject, and of *Télémaque*, a work designed to elevate and purify the nature of the young Duke of Burgundy, whose tutor Fénelon became in 1689. Schmidt then proceeds to a more than proportionately detailed treatment of the educational contribution of the Pietists, as represented, first, by the institutions established at Halle by Auguste Hermann Francke, and, secondly, by the educational work of the religious society founded at Herrnhut for the Moravian Brethren by Count von Zinzendorf, by whom, he says, "the idea of a culture of man proceeding from a religious centre, or of education on a Christian basis, was first distinctly seized upon." (pp. 137-138)

The influence of Schmidt's own early training is doubtless reflected in the extent of his treatment of the Moravian institutions, of which he says that "they must still be ranked among the best and most efficient, both as regards scholastic instruction and general education, that modern times have produced." (p. 139) His first reference to American education appears in this connection in a footnote relative to Moravian schools for boys at Nazareth, Pa., and for girls at Bethlehem and at Lititz, in Pennsylvania, and at Salem, North Carolina.

Schmidt's discussion of the "new pedagogics" manifests his most striking variation from the grouping and terminology generally met with among later educational historians. He classifies the trends of development from the beginning of the eighteenth century under three rubrics, namely, the Franckean or Pietistic, in the ascendant from about 1700 until after 1730; the Humanistic, from about 1730 to 1770; and, finally, what he characterizes as the "Egotistic system, or the pedagogics of the philanthropists, originating with Rousseau, and extending into the nineteenth century." (p. 143) The

first of these tendencies finds its foundation and aim in Christian piety. Innate tendencies to evil in the child are to be sought out and counteracted. External culture should have reference to the future destination of the child. There should be practical instruction, looking toward the prospective vocation, for those intended for ordinary life callings. For those designed for the learned professions, the chief emphasis should be placed upon the mastery of the classical languages, with attention in the higher classes to rhetoric and logic. Practical religious instruction, with devotional exercises, is important for all.

The classical language emphasis of the Pietistic education for the professional classes approached in content that of the Humanistic pedagogics, but was distinguished from the latter by Francke's paramount emphasis upon the element of piety. Under the pedagogics of the Humanists, Schmidt discusses the emergence of the scholarly study of the classical language under such educators as Cellarius, Schütz and F. A. Wolf at Halle, Gesner and Heyne at Göttingen, and Ernesti, Beck and Gottfried Hermann at Leipzig.

Under the category which he classifies as philanthropic or egotistic pedagogy, Schmidt deals with the tendencies which accompanied the diffusion of education among the mass of the people and the consequent shift to emphasis upon the preparation of the young for the affairs of common life. The old encyclopedism as a hobby of the learned gave way to a "rage for much knowledge, among all classes of society." (p. 147) The cohesiveness of the old society was replaced by an atomistic individualism. This "chemical tendency of the spirit of the age was too agreeable to egotism, that it should not have welcomed the regard which was manifested for the pupil's self." (p. 148) The movement took its origin from the seventeenth century encyclopedism of Bacon, Ratich, Comenius and Locke. For the decline of the influence of religion which accompanied it Schmidt holds, on the one hand, the clergy at fault for their neglect of the true culture of mind and heart, which brought about an attitude of suspicion toward ecclesiastical organizations, and, on the other, the schoolmen at fault for their pedantry.

The pedagogic systems which Schmidt classi-

fies under this head are those of Rousseau, Basedow, Salzmann, M. de Rochow, Pestalozzi, Fellenberg and Fichte. He says:

Pestalozzi carried the egotistic mode of education to its utmost height, so that in him it found its culminating point. He was deeply sensible of the egotism of the age; he desired to educate the individual for society, and we can discover in his labours various tendencies to this end. In him we find the point of transition to the newest educational developments, and he belongs, in a measure, to that period, which had already commenced in his day. Ratich wished to lead the world of thoughts and of language, Comenius that of the senses, *into* the pupil; Rousseau desired to conduct him into an ideal world, and Pestalozzi to create one out of him. (p. 159)

In his conclusion, Schmidt explains his omission of any account of American educational development. He states:

In our historic sketch of modern education, our own country has not been brought into consideration, for the simple reason that its pedagogic activity and institutions belong, in reality, entirely to the present period of that history, and because no peculiar systems have been here promulgated. If we belong to any school, we must be Eclectics. Our culture is essentially European, modified, of course, by our political institutions, our peculiar civil and social organization; and, while we are prompt to appropriate what we consider as good in the pedagogic arrangements, and institutions, and systems of Europe, we have fallen into many of the errors which, as we have seen, prevailed, or still prevail, in the Old World. (p. 166)

In view of the date of publication of Schmidt's work, it is scarcely necessary to mention that he did not include an account of the development, by Johann Friedrich Herbart, of the conception (implicit in Pestalozzi) of education as the elaboration of sense impressions through educative instructions, establishing many-sided interest and aiding in the apperception of manifold presentations, and leading through organized knowledge to the development of socially efficient ethical character; or, on the other hand, of the amplification, by Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel, of another conception also present in Pestalozzi's thought,

namely, that of education as unfoldment or self-development through self-activity and creativeness, with the corollary principles of the function of the school as an epitome of society, and the Kindergarten, a school foreshadowed by Comenius' Mother School and designed to receive children before the usual school age, and through association, amusements and materials, known as "gifts" and "occupations," to lead them to harmonious development and to unity with themselves, and to prepare them for the work of the conventional school and for social participation. Herbart had died during the year preceding the appearance of Schmidt's *Education*. His significance, therefore, had not at that time emerged into clear perspective. Froebel had still a decade of life before him.

Schmidt's volume was well received. Alonzo Potter, in his *Hand-Book for Readers*, published in 1843, referred to it as "A good compilation from the learned works of the Ger-

mans on pedagogics, and a most timely contribution to our literature." An active demand for the work continued down to the period of the Civil War, a tenth edition being published in 1858. The undertaking deserves to be remembered as a pioneer effort which served well in its day and which anticipated by many years the prolific fruits of American interest in educational history which followed the publication, in Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, of English translations of portions of Karl Georg von Raumer's *History of Pedagogy* (*Geschichte der Pädagogik*, 4 vols., 1843-1855), which was the earliest German work on the history of education to become well-known and influential in America; the American reprints of Quick's *Essays on Educational Reformers*, to which we have already referred; and the publication, in 1886, of F. V. N. Painter's *History of Education* and W. H. Payne's translation of Gabriel Compayré's *History of Pedagogy*.

Teaching American History Through Its Period Music

NORA D. CHRISTIANSON

University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch, Minnesota

On a beautiful, still night last summer, together with twenty-two other mountain climbers, I was sitting on a tall peak in northern Norway. Around us, for miles and miles, bathed in the red glow of the midnight sun, lay a veritable dreamland of breath-taking beauty. We were watching the sun in its seemingly ever-speedier rotation in its orbit, there on "top of the world." To us the sun was a never-to-be-forgotten phenomenon because to the rest of the people of the universe, it had already set, while visibly before us above the horizon line, it lit up the scene, the red rays reflecting from every neighboring peak.

The Norse climbers in our party filled the midnight hour with song—deep, resonant basses like the shadowy valleys below, or lilting, lofty sopranos reaching toward the cloudless zenith like the encircling snow-flecked mountain peaks

around us—song vibrant with love for their homeland, or with the pressure of a story to be told on wings of one of God's greatest gifts to man: music. Each succeeding melody was a song of their country, its beauty, its grandeur, its incomparable tradition, its impeccable humanity; ballads of experiences of someone resulting from primitive social conditions; tales of wars.

While listening to the singing of Norway's history, and moved by the echoes of the music as it returned to accentuate the depth of the words, my heart was in my own glorious homeland. The words told again and again the facts of the history of my own incomparable country. Surely our history, too, can be told in song! This thought grew until it formed a truth in my mind, until the conviction had crystallized that there is a definite inter-relation between our history and the songs we sing.

Since music is a part of all human activities, it is a real tangible part of history and of all social development within a nation. In our country, as in others, music has combined with every phase of development, and with every national enterprise, both social, political, and educational. Regardless of its origin, of the country from which it came, of the culture which has given it birth, or of the cause or emotions from which it has emerged, the music of all nations has many common characteristics. Some of the most outstanding of these are as follows:

I. The effect of the spirit of music to promote

A. The possibility of increased simplified muscular rhythms of groups of workers, as rowers, by music of even and appropriate tempo

"The Volga Boatman"

"I've Been Working on the Railroad"
Norse boatmen songs (Several)

I have seen Mexicans cutting the leaves off sugar beets to the measures of a Mexican melody of 2/4 time, each downbeat of music emphasizing the stroke of the beet knives. The resultant rhythms, both visual and auditory, were beautiful.

We hear of Negro slaves in America reaching the end of their rows of cotton with no laggards in the fields as if music gave impetus to their tired, hot arms and feet.

B. Unity of performance through musical rhythm

"Tramp, Tramp, Tramp"

"Marching Through Georgia"

Any good march for walking briskly, lightly.

C. An alleviation of the hopelessness of drudgery, a strengthening of hope and courage, a relieving of monotony of doing the same type of work day after day, through enjoyment of song and emotional release through music

1. Negro spirituals

a. Of slavery days

b. Of the present-day South

2. Hymns

a. Of early Christian periods

b. Of the colonization period of our country

II. Music in all countries has been affected by the type of activities peculiar to its industries or occupations, sections, or the total nation, as well as by its social or economic periodic state

A. Vocations and Occupations

"Rosie, the Riveter"

"The Milkman Serenade"

"Angels of Mercy" (World War II)

"An Apple for the Teacher"

"I Want a Girl Just Like the Girl . . ."

"The Mailman"

"The Butcher, the Baker, the Candlestick Maker"

"Down on the Farm"

This by-play in the form of national music and melody is the evidence of our country's total democratic culture. We are proud of our industries, as well as of those skilled in any form of labor—so proud of them that we sing about these laborers! One finds this pride only occasionally in European countries. We may think of Ole Bull's "Saterjentens Søndag" ("Chattel Maiden's Sunday") in this category as a parallel, but it does not receive its ovation through honoring a Norwegian occupation, because being a chattel-maiden is a vocation in Norway. The "budeie" as she is called receives a salary and is engaged for the season. Ole Bull's song gained its fame because it struck a note of harmony in hearts all over the world.

B. Sections

1. Songs of the South

"Old Folks at Home"

"Old Kentucky Home"

"Swanee River"

"Nellie Gray"

"Old Black Joe"

"Missouri Waltz"

"Old Dan Tucker"

"Carry Me Back to Old Virginie"

"I'm Gwine Back to Dixie"

"Old Uncle Ned"

2. Cowboy Songs

"Home on the Range"

"Lamp Lightin' Time"

"Bury Me not on the Lone Prairie"

"Back in the Saddle Again"

- "I'll Wait for You"
 "Yippi Kiya"
 "Empty Saddles"
 "Get Along Little Dogies"
3. State songs
 Forty-eight or more
- C. The nation as a whole
 "God Bless America"
 "America"
 "America, the Beautiful"
 "Star Spangled Banner"
 "Battle Hymn of the Republic"
 United States service songs
 War songs
 "Smile the While"
 "Over There"
 "Lafayette, Here We Come"
 "Joan of Arc"
 "Pack Up Your Troubles"
 "Marching Through Georgia"
 "The Maine"
 "John Brown's Body"
- III. Music, through its adaptability, can reveal the temperament of a people. Our own nation has, again and again used songs of other nations in parody, revealing subtly our traditional humor
 "Yankee Doodle"
 Written and used by the British in jest, adopted by the Americans. We still—and no doubt always shall—display great enthusiasm for the song. The story is beautifully told in Kinchella's *History Sings*
 "Hunting the Hun"
 "It's a Long Way to Berlin"
 "He's My Yankee Doodle Boy"
- IV. Courage is transmitted through music
 Our war songs
 To encourage those at home as well as those in service
 "The Marseillaise"
 Sung during the French Revolution to spur the revolutionists to greater zeal and participation
 Tchaikovsky's "Warsaw Concerto"
 To stimulate greater courage and nationalism in present day Russia
 Jean Sibelius' "Finlandia"
 For encouraging a strong nationalism, by impressing the dominant social and

natural beauty of Finland upon the minds of the Finnish people

- V. Music in every age and nation has reflected the spirit of the times or the immediate needs of that nation's people. In our own land, these historical periods are well expressed by our songs and music
 Songs of the slavery period
 Indian songs and music
 Parodies of "Gold Rush" period
 War songs
 a. 1812
 b. Spanish American War
 c. Civil War
 d. Mexican War
 The Alamo
 Texas annexation
 e. World War I
 f. World War II
- VI. Music is an everlasting monument to our national heroes or to someone who has served well and has our national appreciation
 "My Captain"
 "Casey Jones"
 "Rose of No-Man's Land"
 "Mississippi Belle"
 "Roger Young"
 "Sioux City Sue" (symbolic)
 "The Wabash" (several)
 "Mother" (universal)
 "That Silver-Haired Daddy of Mine"

Music performs a triple function of stimulation: to its creator, to the performer, and to the listener. Likewise, it has come from an intangible something, made audible by a joy in the making, a release spontaneity which could not be curbed. Whether we are the entertained or the entertainers, music stabilizes our emotional life, deepens our appreciations, gives us relaxation for our general physical and mental tenseness and alertness, and substitutes pleasure for problems which are often the result of our tense attitudes. It expresses and suggests ideas, thoughts, and emotions, which can be manifested in no other way, giving hope, courage, zest, and joy to work and to life itself. Because I believe these truths, I would have music taught as a definite and integral part of social study units.

Dry dates and abstract facts concerning the

dead past become living, real, and tangible if the child has the opportunity to sing the music of that particular period as a definite part of the class work. If the pupil can express emotionally and physically the sentiment of that particular period through song, the history lesson will be learned more easily as well as more permanently because those facts are thus elevated from the abstraction of the dim past into a world of reality, a tangible, emotional experience in the child's life. No child, who has learned the story of the French Revolution with the help of the tune of "The Marseillaise," and has sung the stirring words and marched to its tempo will ever forget the story of the French revolutionists marching up the Rhone Valley, embittered, seeking justice and mercy where none was to be found.

The realization of the relation between our national history and the well defined periods of song can come to our children only through integrated and carefully planned teaching. These boys and girls in our classes are the men and women of tomorrow. They are the ones upon whom the duty rests to propagate our national culture, of which songs are a definite part. Only through this type of teaching can our national periods of stress, expansion and development be given with their fullest, deepest meaning.

THE NEGRO'S CONTRIBUTION TO AMERICAN CULTURE—A UNIT

Suggested Approaches to the Unit

- I. To arouse interest in the unit
- II. To give incentive for the study of the unit
 - A. Through music
 1. Negro music
 - a. Primitive (Boogie-woogie)
 1. *Afro-American Folk Songs*, by Henry E. Kreibiel
 - b. Modern
 1. Jazz (Primitive adapted and adopted)
 - c. Spirituals
 - d. "Mighty Lak' a Rose" — contrasted respectively with
 1. Folk songs
 2. Popular songs
 3. Hymns
 - B. Through geography

1. Comparing South with North as to climate, industries, schools
2. A study of climatic conditions of North America
3. A study of wind belts
- C. Through a question of a child during class period, or the result of hearing a related discussion over the radio
- D. Through language
 1. Poem study
 - a. "Little Brown Bebby"
 - b. "Mighty Lak' a Rose"
 2. Dialect as a means of focussing interest
 3. Story or book read
(Perhaps *Great Day in the Morning* or *Shuttered Windows*)
- E. Through arithmetic
 1. Graph-making unit
 - a. Rise in Negro population
 - b. Introduction of Negro
 1. Date graphs
 2. Study of statistical tables
 - a. Growth of Negro population in the United States
Objectives of the Study
- I. Habits, Abilities, and Skills
 - A. Ability to use card catalog, for
 1. Contemporary history
 2. Historical novels
 3. Biographies
 - B. Ability to use encyclopedias and other reference books efficiently and successfully
 - C. Ability to use the world globe comprehensively
 - D. Ability to draw maps showing
 1. Original home of Negro
 2. Regional maps
 - E. Ability to read map legends in studying
 1. Climatic maps
 2. Commercial maps
 3. Industrial maps
 4. Topographical maps
 - F. Skills in selecting relevant reading material
 - G. Skills in selecting, scanning, and organizing data
 - H. Habit of recognizing, in source material
 1. Honest data
 2. Propaganda

II. Understandings (knowledges, concepts, facts)

A. Geographical

1. Knowing location of original home of the Negro
 - a. The possible reason for the color
2. An understanding of the development of the cotton and rice industry of the South
3. An understanding of climatic conditions of the North and the South, resulting in the adoption of slavery in the South
4. An understanding of the need for human help in the South to develop the sectional industries
5. An understanding of southern harbors, waters, and location of cities to make the "blockade running" of the Civil War possible

B. Technical terms, knowledge of

1. "Blockade running"
2. "Triangular trade"
3. Doldrums
4. "Horse latitudes"
5. "Equatorial belt"

C. History

1. A knowledge of the chronological sequence of the period 1619-1865 and 1865-1947
2. A knowledge of the importance and meaning of the following facts and terms in our slavery history
 - a. The trends of expansion of our land in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries
 1. South, Southwest, West. Why?
 - b. Aggravation of the subject of slavery
 1. John Brown's Raid
 2. (Tucker)
 3. Slave trade
3. Terms in history
 - a. Ordinance of the Northwest Territory
 - b. Emancipation—what? Proclamation—what?
 - c. Underground Railway
 - d. Contraband of war
4. Efforts to diminish the problem of slavery

a. 1808—law

b. Compromises in expansion. Why?

1. Missouri Compromise
2. Compromise of 1850

c. Lincoln-Douglas Debates

5. The Civil War

- a. meaning of term
- b. arbitration
- c. arsenals
- d. expansion
- e. nationalism
- f. emancipation
- g. proclamation
- h. reconstruction
- i. Alabama claims
- j. contraband of war
- k. carpetbaggers
- l. K.K.K.
- m. embargo
- n. caucuses

C. Literature

1. Understanding the meaning of "propaganda"
2. Learning to recognize *good* literature on any historical fact
3. Understanding that not all slave owners were "wicked"
4. Familiarity with good books on Civil War period
5. Vocabulary
 - a. arbitration
 - b. culture
 - c. prejudice
 - d. data
 - e. commercial value
 - f. panic
 - g. majority
 - h. nullification
 - i. reconstruction
 - j. controversy

D. Music

1. All forms of Negro music of various periods from 1619-1865
2. All forms of Negro music since then

III. Attitudes and appreciations

A. Appreciation of contributions of the Negro to American music

1. The uniqueness, beauty, and child-like faith characteristic of the Negro spirituals
2. The ingenious employment of ac-

cented music, as in Negro rhythm and swing music

- a. A wealth of definite depth
- b. A mass stimulation

3. The expressive and all-embracing phraseology of Negro songs, adding so much to our fund of music
4. The elevation of the banjo to its present day importance as a musical instrument, conveying Negro rhythm and emotion as no other instrument can
5. The unique, subtle harmony in three- and four-part singing
6. The unique origin of jazz and boogie-woogie
7. The wealth of enjoyment for both entertainers and the entertained in the musical utilization of
 - a. Syncopation
 - b. Slurring and slides
 - c. Music in minor key
 - d. Solo rhythm
 - e. The "shouts"

B. Appreciation of

1. Negro musicians
 - Paul Robeson
 - Marian Anderson
 - Duke Ellington
 - Lena Horne
2. Negro poets
 - P. L. Dunbar
3. Negroes who have added valuable contributions to American ways of life.
 - George Washington Carver—scientist
 - Booker T. Washington—educator
 - Negro divisions in World War II
 - Joe Louis—world heavyweight champion
 - Athletic teams
 - Baseball
 - Basketball
 - Marion Anderson—singer
 - W. E. DuBois—Writer
 - Mordecai W. Johnson — preacher, president of Howard University
- A. Phillip Randolph—organizer of Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters

Walter White—Secretary, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People

Richard Wright—writer

William Grant Still—musical composer

Paul Lawrence Dunbar—poet

SOURCE MATERIAL

I. The Introduction and Establishment of Slavery in America

A. Music for this period

1. Jazz

- a. We Americans boast (silently) a national pride in great things which have had lowly beginnings but have been adopted and made a genuine part of our enviable American culture
- b. Possible selections
 - Gershwin's "Porgy and Bess," "Emperor Jones"
 - Carpenter's "Adventures in a Perambulator"
 - Duke Ellington's "Lightning," "Hot Trumpets," "Mood Indigo"

2. Ballads

3. Boogie-woogie

- a. "Dance of Place Congo," by Henry F. B. Gilbert

B. Selected topics

1. Why were the Negroes rather than the yellow or brown races brought to this country and sold as slaves?
 - a. Distance
 - b. Wind belts
 - c. Ease of capturing Negro because of inherent fearlessness and curiosity
2. What was the "triangular trade" and what were the underlying economic conditions favoring it?
 - Dutch traders
 - a. Brought captives to West Indies and sold some there, adding sugar to their cargo
 - b. Continued to the southeastern coast of the mainland, selling the remainder there, and also the sugar
 - c. Loaded a cargo of rum, and returned to Africa by way of England, where they disposed of the

cargo, returning to Africa, where preparation for the repeat journeys took place. The "triangle trade" was controlled by prevailing winds, and their seasonal shift

3. What were the doldrums? Tell how these may have affected the conditions of the loads of Negroes. What were the seamen's problems and solutions in that area? Contrast doldrums with "horse latitudes"
4. Why were not the slaves sold inland, and thus distributed over the land?
5. Why was the trade not stopped before it became a problem? Describe the then-existing state of our own country
6. List the reasons for selling the Negroes at certain places
7. Trace the growth of industries affecting Negro slavery in our country
 - a. From 1619-1860 and 1860-1949
 - b. In the South
 - c. In the North
 1. Graphs
 2. Legends of history maps
8. Trace transportation advancement within our borders, which had any effect upon Negro slavery
 - a. From 1619-1860 and 1860-1949
 - b. By water, by land, by air
(Good maps and materials can be secured from leading companies for the three types of transportation)

II. The Growth of Democracy in our Country

A. Continuation of Music as outlined for I

1. List steps in our national unification, showing the Negro's place and function in this great work
2. What is a democracy? An autocracy? A bureaucracy? (Democratic, autocratic, bureaucratic)
3. Which will most favorably include a Negro population? Why?
4. Which of these words must be used in a character study of Thomas Jefferson? Why?
5. What were the negative elements of establishing a true democracy in our country? (1619-1900) (A child's mind is often better able than we are

to revert to the life of our earlier people, and see the difficulties incurred in "transplanting" many peoples under one flag, as well as to grasp the unrequited wishes of a pioneer people in development)

6. What form of government was planned for Liberia? Why? By whom? Success of the venture? Justify the answer
(This is "practice" material, but related, and has its definite place in such a study)
7. List the phrases displaying true democracy in
 - a. Emancipation Proclamation
 - b. Gettysburg Address
8. For what purpose and by whom were each of these following written? In what way did each allude to the Negro?
 - a. Emancipation Proclamation
 - b. Gettysburg Address
 - c. Declaration of Independence
 - d. Preamble to our Constitution

III. The Conflict

A. Music for this period

1. Songs of our Union
 - a. "Battle Hymn of the Republic"
 - b. "America"
 - c. "Star Spangled Banner"
2. Songs of the Southland
 - a. "Dixie"
 - b. "Marching Through Georgia"
3. Records of songs of states added during that period:
 - Maine—1820
 - Missouri—1821
 - Arkansas—1836
 - Michigan—1837
 - Texas and Florida—1845
 - Iowa—1846
 - Wisconsin—1847
 - California—1850
 - Minnesota—1858
 - Oregon—1859
 - Kansas—1861
 - West Virginia—1863

B. Selecting data

1. How can we tell by the following that thinking men in the United States foresaw the coming struggle?

- a. Slave trade law of 1808
- b. Ordinance of Northwest Territory
- c. Compromises
 1. Missouri
 2. 1850
2. What was the true underlying reason for the attitude of the North regarding slavery?
3. Compare the method of settling a controversy of state in 1860 and 1940
4. What are some advantages of utilizing the arbitration method in restoring good will?
5. Give effect of expansion upon the problem. Show on outline map our expansions from 1619-1860
6. What may have been the effect upon the war had a certain southern officer been loyal to his country rather than to his state?
7. On your outline maps show the places from which the important officers on each side came. Use two colors for the towns. Notice the section which furnished the greatest number of officers. List reasons for this fact (Examples—Lee, Grant, Jackson, Bragg, Price, Farragut, Johnston, McClellan, Rosecrans, Buell, Stuart)
8. List reasons for the fighting of the main battles in a definite territory, and not at seemingly planned points in all cases
9. What did each of these do for the cause of the Negro in America?
 - a. Abraham Lincoln
 - b. Jefferson Davis
 - c. John Brown
 - d. Stephen Douglas
 - e. Henry Clay
 - f. John Calhoun
 - g. Andrew Jackson
 - h. Andrew Johnson
 - i. Stanton
 - j. U. S. Grant
 - k. Robert E. Lee
10. What then, were the real causes of the Civil War?

IV. The Reconstruction Period

A. Music for the period

1. Recorded Music Victor recordings
Carol Brice
"Songs of a Wayfarer"
(Set X267)
- Paul Robeson
"Cradle Song" (Gretchaninov)
(71367-D)
"From Border to Border"
(17356-D)
"Go Down, Moses" (17369-D)
"Joshua Fit de Battle of Jericho"
(17382-D)
"Nobody Knows de Trouble"
(17382-D)
"Sometimes I Feel Like a Motherless Child"
(17380-D)
"Songs of Free Men" (M-534)
"Water Boy" (Robeson)
(1738-D)
- Stephen Foster
Album (P-140)
"Swanee River" (27233)
"Were You There?" (1966)
"Dere's No Hiding Place" (2032)
(Foster Gallery)
Dances of Negro type (M-727)

B. Topics

1. Discuss an event of national importance making reconstruction difficult
2. What event made World War II reconstruction more difficult than anticipated? Why?
3. Discuss the economic conditions of the Negro after Civil War which added to the problems of Reconstruction
4. What fact of cultural background justifies our code of tolerance toward our American Negro? (Period of civilization, period of freedom as compared to those of the whites)
5. Give biographical proof that our faith in our American Negro has been well placed.
6. List music types which are definitely attributed to Negro origin.
7. What types of music do we now enjoy daily and take for granted, for which we are indebted to the Negro?
8. What measures did our lawmakers take in order that the "We" of the

Preamble to our Constitution and the things for which it stands may also legitimately include the Negro?

9. In what way can you and I be of assistance in bringing about such a state as is evident in their amendment?

Education of the Negro should come first on the list. The teacher must take special care in preparing for this lesson. The success or failure of her culminating activity and her evaluation of the entire study of this are dependent upon her manipulation of this question.

However, this can be simplified by letting the Negro "speak for himself" here. The writer had the great pleasure some years ago, of hearing Paul Lawrence Dunbar read his inimitable poems. It left an indelible impression of the deep human emotion of love in the Negro heart. Study these poems, read them to the class, with the proper depth of feeling, let the children discuss each one, and repeat or learn the lines which each likes best. Often it is well to have copies of the poems in each child's hands or written on the board.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

1. Class discussions
2. Oral reports secured through library research
3. Writing reports
4. Listening to records
5. Singing—with records and without
6. Writing short skits:
 - a. Playing them, directed by children
 - b. Evaluating them
7. Drawing maps of
 - a. Africa, locating original home of Negro
 - b. Liberia
 - c. Atlantic Ocean, tracing routes of "triangular trade"
8. Selecting songs originating in definite periods of the study
9. Writing short poems relative to the subject
10. Making graphs of available material

11. Writing the play for the culminating activity

- a. Project procedure of self-directed work will furnish stimulation

12. Reading of

- a. Biographies
- b. Historical novels

13. Sound movies

14. "Class" museum of minor arts of early America through Civil War period

SUGGESTED METHOD

I. Combining

1. Contract method for stimulating directed individual research
2. Core method, with music as the core
3. Guided individual work, with suggestion as the base

THE CULMINATING ACTIVITY

I. A play written by students

A. Some suggested "plots"

1. The story of the Negro in America
 - a. Conversations discussing slavery in the home of
 1. George Washington
 2. Thomas Jefferson
 3. Abraham Lincoln
 4. Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe
 5. Horace Greeley
 6. A Negro family
 - b. Scenes of cooperation from period of strife
 - c. Scenes from plantation life, with
 1. Spirituals
 2. Songs
 - d. Scenes built up from biographies of some of our successful Negroes. Especially good would be
 1. Mary McLeod Bethune
 2. George Washington Carver
 3. Mordecai W. Johnson
 4. Booker T. Washington
2. Our country increases in size
 - a. Scenes from national negotiations in expansion, where the major question was discussed
 1. Addition of States
 2. Expansion
 3. Annexation

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The Historical Significance of the Struggle Between Hamilton and Jefferson

FREDERICK MAYER

University of Redlands, Redlands, California

From a political viewpoint the American Revolution produced a conflict between the forces of centralization, represented by Hamilton, and those of decentralization, championed by Jefferson. The conflict is still going on in the twentieth century. Hamilton is, perhaps, the most realistic thinker that has been produced in the United States. He made no secret of his aristocratic sympathies and his advocacy of a monarchy. As for the people, he is reported to have said that they were a beast. For the rights of the states he had little sympathy, since he regarded them as obstructions in the creation of a strong central government.

In many ways, Hamilton was the Hobbes of the United States. Like the latter, he was extremely cynical regarding human nature. He had traveled enough to know that everywhere man is guided by self-interest. He could not agree with the rationalists of the eighteenth century that man is essentially good; they were impractical dreamers who had no contact with real life.

Not for a minute would Hamilton allow for a rebellion on the part of the people. Rather, he

wrote, it was necessary that the government should be strong enough to suppress any radical sentiment. While Hobbes championed the divine right of kings, Hamilton substituted the divine right of business. Here the influence of Adam Smith becomes apparent. Hamilton would not tolerate government control of industry nor the use of the nation's resources to aid the farmer. When it came to popular representation in government, he wrote that there was a natural aristocracy of wealth. Jefferson, on the other hand, championed the common man. In a letter to John Adams, written in 1813, he said that he did not believe in aristocracy founded upon money or birth. The only superior class that he accepted was that based upon virtue and talents.

Jefferson was the first New Dealer in the United States. He had a tireless zeal for reform in politics, in economics, education, science, and religion, as well as in other fields of culture. He was an intellectual, and started early in life by supplementing his formal studies with independent reading. In science, he was interested in all the new inventions, as

well as in the basic theories current at his time. His view of science was eminently practical; thus he encouraged the knowledge of agriculture. So advanced were his religious ideals that the conservative ministers of New England thought that a revolutionary change would be brought about and that the Bible would be cast away when he became President. But he was a man of broad sympathies and never went to extremes in his religious actions.

Jefferson's thinking was influenced by the contrast between European and American society. The Europe he saw was full of slums, the masses lived in a wretched condition and nearly everywhere a despotic government existed. In the United States, on the other hand, he found a rural society which had overcome the prejudices and class system of the Old World.

For the mob in the city, he had no sympathy, for his ideal was the dominance of an agricultural economy. The problem of Jefferson was how freedom could best be preserved, how European despotism could be kept away from American shores. He thought that the states were the best strongholds of liberty. The geography of his time backed up his arguments. He argued that if there were a strong central authority without the protection of the rights of the states, governmental officials would arise who could not be checked by the people and who could mismanage public funds. Furthermore, because of the vast distances in the United States, the central bureaucracy would not be concerned with the actions of the local government.

From an historical standpoint, Jefferson was suspicious of strong governments because they usually used their powers to tax the people and to maintain large armies. He knew that after a while, these nations became so powerful that they inevitably oppressed the liberties of the people. Did not the English Tories prefer a vast concentration of central authority? Did not the American Federalists constantly encroach upon the rights of the states?

While the conservatives in the United States were afraid of the common people, Jefferson thought that the greatest need of this nation was a periodic revolution. The rebellion of Shay did not worry him a bit. There could only be too little democracy, not too much. Perhaps he

went too far in this doctrine, and, by encouraging the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions in 1798, he contributed to the doctrine that the states were superior to the central government. This action, in time, was to give ammunition to the secessionist forces of the South who were bent upon destroying the Federal Union.

In his educational theories Jefferson had an abiding influence upon the growth of American institutions. According to Jefferson, in a democracy, learning was not merely an intellectual exercise but a prelude to citizenship. Again and again, Jefferson emphasized that there must be common knowledge and common interest in political affairs if the democratic ideal was to triumph. Vigorously, he fought against all forms of censorship. Here again, he represents the ideal of the modern liberal who regards freedom of thought as his most precious heritage.

In founding the University of Virginia, Jefferson held up to this nation a new educational ideal. It was to be an institution, not for the development of an aristocracy trained in traditional cultural pursuits, but an institution for democratic leadership. It would teach a practical adjustment to life, and imbue the student with a scientific perspective instead of stressing theological beliefs.

In later years, Jefferson fought a battle with the Supreme Court. He was almost as bitter toward John Marshall as Franklin D. Roosevelt was toward Charles Evans Hughes. To Jefferson, the Supreme Court represented a new form of despotism. Again, he could point to Europe. Was it not true that English common law had protected the wealthy classes and had enslaved the lower strata of society? If the power of the Supreme Court was not checked, he thought it might become a superior government in itself. The actions of John Marshall, especially in *Marbury vs. Madison*, led him to believe that the Supreme Court was determined to thwart the will of the majority.

To some extent, Jefferson was naive regarding the function of the government. In his first Inaugural Address, he spoke of a "wise and frugal government, which shall restrain men from injuring one another, shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has

earned." Such a negative concept of governmental authority was scarcely designed to promote the economic growth of the United States. Such a viewpoint would have prevented internal improvement, the building of a great transportation system, and it would have delayed the establishment of a powerful industrial system. Herein, he echoed the hopes of a simple

agricultural economy. The farmers and frontiersmen, like Jefferson, thought that this nation was to be based upon rural wealth, but this ideal was made obsolete with the coming of the railway and the factory.

For better or for worse the United States was made dependent upon an increasingly complex technological system.

Preparation and Use of Study Guides

ORLANDO W. STEPHENSON

School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

There was a time, not long ago, when study guides were in general use in the junior and senior high schools throughout the United States. But their popularity with classroom teachers steadily declined so that today their use is the exception rather than the rule. That many teachers ceased to employ them may be accounted for principally by one or more of the following reasons: (1) lack of experience in preparing them; (2) ignorance of the special techniques necessary to implement them most effectively; (3) lack of suitable library and other materials to be used in connection with them, and (4) a preference for already prepared printed workbooks, these latter calling for practically no planning of preliminary work on the part of the teacher. That study guides have been largely abandoned does not mean, however, that they are indefensible as a teaching device. In many schools they have been and are still being used with results gratifying to both pupils and teachers. Perhaps their popularity will return in part if some of the reasons for not using them are removed. If they are properly prepared, if library and other materials are appropriate, adequate and readily available, and if these materials are managed in the proper manner, the guides can be made to serve purposes which every teacher will recognize as sound. Why this is true will be brought out in the paragraphs which follow.

Before we discuss the six steps which should be taken to prepare a study guide and consider the uses to which it may be put, let us define the term. As used in this article a *study guide* is defined as a *written or printed schedule of ac-*

tivities to be carried out in connection with a question or topical outline of a unit of subject matter, with specific directions for carrying out the activities, the names of books and other sources of data to be referred to in obtaining the answers to the questions or from which notes on the several topics can be taken, with a suitable introduction to the whole, and a test or tests to measure some of the significant outcomes resulting from experiences in using the guide.

This definition will have more meaning if the expression, a *unit of subject matter* is also defined. Such a unit may be thought of as an *aggregate of closely related events, facts, concepts and ideas which, taken together, make up an organized body of information about some one principle, subject or problem, having, for purposes of study, a more or less natural place at which to begin and a more or less natural place at which to end.*

The degree of enthusiasm with which pupils will receive the idea of working with a study guide will be governed largely by their inherent interest in the subject or problem to be studied. If the initial interest is high, sustaining it at that level throughout their study will be much easier than it will be if this initial interest is low. It is better, then, to build a guide around a subject or problem which, at the very outset, appeals strongly to the pupils than it is to build one around one in which they have little or no natural interest. Few pupils, for example, will get greatly excited over a guide intended to facilitate a study of the tariff history of the United States, or of the free coinage of silver.

On the other hand a guide might be received with enthusiasm if it dealt with any of the following: Hannibal's campaigns; the Crusades; the French Revolution; crime in the United States; labor and management; the care of the handicapped; or the control of atomic energy. Such subjects and problems are worth a considerable amount of the pupils' time, and in school libraries generally much material is available for their study. The teacher, however, should not tell the pupils that they will use a guide for the study of a unit, and get them all excited about the prospect, until he has made sure that all necessary materials can be obtained to make it function effectively.

One of the chief reasons for using study guides is to help pupils become acquainted with a wide variety of worth-while materials. Extensive reading will give them various viewpoints, cause them to appreciate different phases and diverse aspects of problems and events, and greatly broaden their backgrounds. But these objectives and others we shall mention cannot be attained unless the equipment and materials are actually used. For this reason the decision to prepare a study guide should be held in abeyance until a survey of the books, magazines, newspaper clippings, visual aids, etc., has been made. To conduct such a survey is the first step that the teacher should take. If the school library and the teacher and the pupils together can supply the right kind, in sufficient quantity, and of a variety wide enough to take care of such differences in reading ability as may exist among the pupils who will employ the device, well and good. Then the materials can be assembled and put in a convenient place in the classroom where the pupils will work. But if there is not an adequate supply of the right kind of materials there will be no point in taking all of the time and trouble necessary to prepare a guide. In truth, it would not be possible to go ahead with the preparation. Moreover, an inadequate, unsuitable supply in the classroom would mean that there would not be enough references to go around and, as a consequence, some of the pupils would have no materials with which to work. From time to time they would, perforce, be idle and would present a situation which every teacher would wish to avoid. On the other hand, if there are plenty of the right kind of good

materials, the teacher can proceed with the other steps necessary properly to process the instrument.

The second step is taken when the teacher familiarizes himself with the contents of the various references and locates the specific elements of information he will want the pupils to study. It is these elements of information which will furnish the answers to questions in the guide or will be the sources of the notes the pupils will take on the topics included in it. Whenever the subject matter being surveyed suggests to the teacher a good fact or thought question or a topic for the outline, he should write this question or topic on a small slip of paper or card together with the page reference of the material which suggested it. When all of the reference material has been reviewed the third step can be taken, that of arranging under main questions or general topics (e.g., Roman I, Roman II, etc.) and the subordinate questions or topics in a sequence he wants these questions and topics to possess when the outline is in final form. Opposite each question or topic included in the outline should appear the exact page reference where the answer to that question can be found or the notes on that topic can be obtained.

The fourth step is taken when the required and optional activities are chosen. In choosing these the teacher should have in view, not only adding to the information which the pupils may acquire as a result of answering questions or taking notes, but should also have in mind giving them experiences which will develop their skills, improve their habits, and help them acquire worthy attitudes, appreciations and ideals. Among the activities may be these: drawing maps, charts, diagrams, pictograms, ground-plans, cartoons and sketches of places and objects; defining words and using them correctly in sentences; the preparation of oral and written compositions; giving special reports; participation in a debate or panel discussion; gathering material for and arranging a bulletin board display; making a booklet or scrapbook; outlining some especially valuable material; constructing a model; making part of a community survey, making one or more recordings, reading and reporting upon some kind of worth-while literary production.

Each main division of a study guide (marked

Part I, Part II, etc.) is a miniature study guide in itself. It will have a small list of specific directions, a reference list, a vocabulary list, one or more main questions (Roman I, Roman II, etc.) or topics with subordinate questions or subtopics, and a list of required and optional activities, the "required" being marked with one or more asterisks.

In preparing the questions and choosing the activities the teacher must also provide for some of the principal individual differences among the pupils. In a heterogeneous group of from thirty to thirty-five pupils there will be a wide range in habits, abilities and skills as well as in intelligence. Some of the pupils will not be able to identify answers to questions even when the material they read gives them specific answers to these questions, nor will they be able to take notes when the material deals directly with a topic at the moment uppermost in their minds. Some will give meager answers, consisting of no more than a word or two, or of a simple sentence, or will take no more than one insignificant note on a topic of importance. Some will waste precious time before attacking their tasks, will work slowly and halfheartedly, and will concentrate capriciously and intermittently as they proceed. Some, too, will be unable to follow directions and carry out the various activities as the directions require. Some will not be able to stick to their tasks for long at a time, and the results of their feeble efforts will be both slipshod and untidy. In contrast to these, many pupils will have excellent study habits and will have the ability to perform in a skillful manner each of the techniques necessary for carrying out the activities efficiently and well. The number of questions to be answered or topics on which notes are to be taken should be fixed somewhat according to the ability of the pupils. If desirable, a minimum can be set for those of low ability who, with effort, can achieve a grade of "C," and slightly higher requirements can be set for those capable of achieving a grade of "B" or "A." Obviously the teacher must have a fairly definite idea of the individual abilities, habits, skills and intelligence of the boys and girls in any class for whom a study guide is intended before he can make any provisions for these differences when making up the guide.

The teacher is now in a position to take the fifth step in preparing the guide, that of writing the general directions, those that will apply (1) to the conduct of the pupils and (2) to their use of the study guide as a whole. These directions should be put right *after* the introduction and just *before* the list of general references when the final draft of the guide is being written. The following directions will apply to most study guides, though a teacher may find it advantageous to modify these to suit the purposes of some special guide he may prepare:

1. Work at your seat, by yourself, independently.
2. If you need help, go quietly to your teacher or raise your hand and he will come to you.
3. Define or give the correct meaning of each word and expression in the several vocabulary lists.
4. All written work and drawings are to be done neatly in ink (or typed) and put into your notebook.
5. In order to earn a grade of "C," it will be necessary to answer each question, or take notes on each topic, carry out at least one of the activities marked with an asterisk (*) and at least one of the optionals in each part, e.g., Part I, Part II, etc. To earn a grade of "B," it will be necessary to meet all of the requirements for a grade of "C" and, in addition, carry out at least two of the activities marked with two asterisks (**) and at least two of the optional activities in each part. To earn a grade of "A," it will be necessary to meet all of the requirements for a grade of "B" and, in addition, carry out at least one of the activities marked with three asterisks (***) and one or more of the other optional activities.
6. Observe that each question or topic in the outline has, at its left, a Roman numeral, a capital letter, an Arabic numeral, or a small letter. Any question or topic can be designated, therefore, by a combination of numerals and letters according to the position the question or topic occupies in the outline, viz., (see outline below) IA2c, IIB3d, IIC1a, etc. Whenever you put the answer to a question in your notebook or take a note on a topic, at the left of this answer or topic put the number and letter

combination which the corresponding question or topic has in the outline.

7. Unless your teacher gives you permission to follow a different procedure, work from one question or topic to the next in the same sequence that the questions or topics have in the outline. (Note: A shortage of materials may make it necessary to follow a sequence different from that in the outline).
8. When in need of materials, get them from the place where they are kept in the classroom. Do not take to your seat any more than you will have immediate use for. To do so may mean that you are depriving some other pupil of materials he greatly needs for his work. When you have finished using material, return it to the place where it belongs.
9. If you wish to take any materials home for overnight use, make necessary arrangements with your teacher for doing so.
10. In a special place in your notebook, keep a careful record of each reference from which you obtain an answer, or take a note. Give the name of the author, name of the reference, the page or pages from which the answer was obtained or note was taken, the name of the city where the reference was published, the name of the publisher, and the date of publication.

The work called for by the fifth direction should not be too difficult or involve an amount of time all out of proportion to the value and importance of the subject or problem to be studied. In processing the guide the teacher should take cognizance of the number of class hours which the study of other subjects and problems will consume during the semester or academic year. It may be, therefore, that the questions in the outline will have to be simplified and the number of these, or of the topics, will have to be cut down. Similarly, if the required and optional activities are too difficult and demand too much of the pupils' time, they will have to be simplified and reduced in number, especially those that must be carried out to meet the requirements for the grade of "B" or "A."

The sixth step should produce two tests, a trial test and a final test. The trial test should

be administered to each pupil for the purpose of revealing what gains he has made as a result of his experiences in working with the guide. As far as possible it should test for the amount of information he has absorbed, the extent of his acquaintance with materials he has used, and whether he has acquired greater skill in extracting evidence from these materials. It should also shed some light on the extent to which other skills have been developed, whether his work habits have improved, and what changes for the better, if any, have come in his attitudes, appreciations and ideals. The grade a pupil receives on the trial test is not to count on his permanent record, but if it is low he should do more work on those parts of the guide in connection with which his achievement was poor and thus better fit himself for taking the final test. The grade he receives on this final test is the one he gets for the work he did as directed in the guide.

When the component parts of a study guide have been put together in final form, enough copies of it should be made to provide each pupil in the class with one and to have a few to keep in reserve. As soon as they have been distributed the teacher should go through the guide with the pupils, commenting upon such parts as may call for additional clarification and making any explanations which may help implement the instrument. During this procedure the pupils should be given an opportunity to ask questions about the directions, what they are to do, the materials they are to work with, and the methods they are to employ. The teacher should also call attention to the place where the materials are kept in the classroom and how they are arranged. The initial distribution of these materials should be made by the teacher, this to prevent a wild scramble for them. In distributing them the teacher should make sure that each pupil has a reference of value from which to obtain the answers to the first few questions or from which good notes on the first few topics in the outline can be taken. After these questions have been answered or notes on the topics have been written each pupil can get for himself the materials he needs, proceeding in accordance with the directions in the guide.

When a few of the better pupils have finished or have nearly finished the work called for in

Part I of the guide, all of the pupils should be asked to lay aside their work. Then the teacher can ask several pupils who have found good answers to the first question, or who have taken good notes on the first topic, to read aloud what they have written in their notebooks. Meanwhile, the other members of the class can compare their answers or notes with what they hear read. The answers or notes can then be discussed as to relevancy, adequacy and clarity, a decision as to the best answer or notes can be reached, and each pupil can revise or improve his own answer or notes if ways in which to do so are suggested by what he hears. Each succeeding question or topic can be treated in the same way. Thus, in a democratic, mutually helpful manner each pupil can participate in making a complete set of good answers or in acquiring a full set of good notes. When this procedure has been followed for each part of the guide, every pupil will have a good answer or good notes for every question or topic in the guide.

From all of the foregoing it is apparent that preparing a good, serviceable study guide is no simple or trivial task. To produce a high grade guide takes a great deal of time and energy on the part of the teacher. It is logical to ask, therefore, whether the values to be derived from its use are commensurate with the amount of patient labor necessary to produce it. Our answer is that they are. If a study guide is skillfully drawn and properly employed it can easily be defended as a teaching device. After it has been put into the hands of the pupils and teacher has gone over it carefully with them, the responsibility for the conduct of the class hour is upon the individual pupil. Since he works independently, the success of the period is gauged largely, though not entirely, by what he accomplishes for himself. For him the class hour is a work period. It is a time for study, for extensive reading, for gathering evidence, for discussing that evidence, evaluating it and

adding information to his store of useful knowledge. The guide provides for increasing the pupil's vocabulary, gives him experience in the use of the dictionary and in using new words correctly in oral and written expression. The requirements of the instrument are definite, and a pupil can see at any time exactly how much of the work provided for in the guide he has done. The teacher can tell whether everyone in the class is busy, what each has done and is doing and he, too, can see the visible evidence of achievement. He can give the kind of help that is needed when it is needed, and he can make sure that each pupil experiences the satisfaction that results from successful endeavor. With slight modifications he can use a good study guide over and over again, a fact which partly compensates for the large amount of time and energy he expends in getting it out in the first place.

Some of these values will also result from the use of a good ready-for-use workbook. But a well drawn study guide will have values that such a device will not produce. A guide such as we have described is original; it is the brain-child of the teacher who works it out, and it is an object of pride to both teacher and pupils. They will derive more satisfaction from using it, therefore, than they would from a workbook someone else has prepared. Moreover, a study guide is produced to meet the needs of a particular class and is used with materials already on hand and immediately available. But the references in a workbook may be already in the school library and they may not. Finally, the individual cost of such study guides as a teacher may prepare is only a fraction of the cost of a workbook.

If teachers will take the six steps we have described in preparing study guides and use them as suggested in the paragraphs above, the guides will serve valid purposes, their popularity will increase, and they will prove to be an excellent teaching device.

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH¹

Chairman, Social Studies Department, Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia

"Every institution," said Carlyle "is but the lengthened shadow of a man." In the case of the Teachers' Page the shadow is in the person of a woman—Dr. Emma Bolzau, Head of the Social Studies Department, South Philadelphia High School for Girls. As chairman of the Book Committee that guides Philadelphia social studies teachers in the selection of reading materials, Dr. Bolzau suggested to Dr. Bining, our editor, that THE SOCIAL STUDIES have a page in which teachers may exchange ideas relating to their work. Dr. Bining heartily approved of the plan. Thus the ball started rolling and it has stopped at this point. Where it will go and the direction it will take will depend upon your response.

Some people (including teachers) have characterized teachers as being somewhat frustrated individuals. Basically, of course, there is a bit of frustration in all people. Whether teachers on an average suffer inhibitions more than do other people is an interesting question. There is some evidence that this may be the case. A recent issue of a popular magazine reported on a clinical study that analyzed the degree of neurotic symptoms displayed by the different professional groups represented in the study. The teachers were rated as being the most neurotic. If this were true generally, and it may or may not be, there is probably good reason for it. What other profession is subjected, day in and day out, to the task of civilizing young barbarians, many of whom refuse to be civilized! That last statement is an adaptation of a bit of philosophy enunciated by a professor of education whose name we need not mention.

In the last several decades, our thinking has been greatly influenced by the findings in psychology and psychoanalysis. It is natural, therefore, that teacher is occasionally subjected to the psychoanalytic microscope. We will need more extensive research, however, to come to

a scientific conclusion regarding the neurotic qualities inherent in teaching. Perhaps the conclusion may be the other way about, that the individual chooses teaching as a career because he is neurotic. In either case, for the teacher, the problem of being able to express himself freely is important. In this connection, there is an interesting story related by Dr. James H. S. Bossard, Professor of Sociology, University of Pennsylvania, that bears on this whole problem of frustration.

It seems that the wife of a doctor was suffering from high blood pressure. Her husband had her examined by several specialists. None could find any physical cause for the condition. The husband-doctor discussed the matter with a friend, a psychiatrist. An arrangement was made for a series of talks between this psychiatrist and the wife. For two months the analyst could get no clue to the woman's difficulty. She was a well disposed person. Everything was right with the world. Her husband was excellent; her children were all good; her friends were as friends should be. Life was just perfect—in fact, too perfect.

When the psychiatrist was ready to give up, he found a clue. It was a slip of the tongue. The patient had made an unkind gesture about a lady friend with whom she played bridge. The alert psychiatrist used it as an opening wedge. Before long the doctor's wife confessed that all was not perfect, but that she decided that it was good philosophy to accept things as they are; that complaining would help little. Oh things were generally all right, but there were times when she was annoyed or became angry. But, because of her philosophy she acted as though she was undisturbed. The psychiatrist explained to her that this suppression of emotion, to an excess, was responsible for her high blood pressure. He advised her to loosen up—to be herself a little.

A month later the psychiatrist saw his friend the physician and asked him how his wife was. The husband-doctor wasn't at all pleased. Yes,

¹ Mr. Boodish is the author of a forthcoming textbook for secondary schools: *Our Industrial Age*, published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York (Ed.)

his wife's blood pressure was normal, but—she had taken to throwing dishes at him.

As social studies teachers you are not, it is hoped, suffering from high blood pressure. Yet, there may be times when you have something on your mind for which you would like to have a listener. Maybe you have discovered a new way of teaching some phase of American history with backward classes. Perhaps you have some tried or untried ideas about individualized instruction. Or, is there an experience that you have had that has altered your philosophy as a teacher, such as a trip to countries in Europe or other foreign countries? Is there a book or a magazine article that you have read that you think is worth passing on to others? Are there problems that you can't solve and would like to obtain the opinions of others who have had the same or similar problems? In any case, here is an opportunity for you to have someone listen to you through the printed word. Talk up! Put an end to frustration. The Teachers' Page will give you a hearing.

Write to us about what you think of such a page. Is the title appropriate? Would it be better to call it "The Teachers' Corner" or "The Teacher Speaks" or "Speaking Freely"? Perhaps you have other names to suggest. Your comments as to what might be included in this page will be welcome.

Before concluding with this installment, we would like to touch upon a topic that affects all teachers and is not unrelated to the whole area of social studies. It concerns the term "profession" which we have applied freely in talking about teachers. Is teaching a profession? It is not a new issue. Books on education have discussed it. Obviously, as teachers, we naturally would prefer to be regarded as professional men and women. However, does the world so regard us?

One afternoon a group of teachers, while munching sandwiches and drinking tea, were airing their views on this subject. It seems

that one of them had heard a radio program which presented some strong arguments against considering the teacher as a professional person. A point raised on the program, which bears some relationship to this whole problem, is that of union membership and affiliation. Does membership in, and affiliation with, industrial unions constitute a factor against professionalism? It is an interesting question.

Basically, the status of the teacher, whether he is to be regarded as a professional person in the same sense as the doctor, the minister, or the lawyer, depends on the respect that the teacher can command for the work he performs. No one denies that the teacher's work is important. There are some far-sighted thinkers (and they are not all educators) who regard the teacher's contribution as being extremely vital to the well or ill being of the world. That is not claiming too much for our profession. From the point of view of character and personality development of the individual, which in the main determines the quality of all interpersonal and inter-group relationships, the work of the teacher is highly important.

Although we are not attempting here to compare the relative contributions of the different professions, yet if we were to compare teaching with medicine, we would be fully justified in saying that basically the doctor's job is to cure illness whereas the teacher's job is to mold personality. Is the one less important than the other? The problem is not only one of economics.

Is teaching a profession? We think so, but how can we make the world agree with us? How can we gain the respect and prestige that was once ours as teachers? Or is that perhaps just a vain dream?

Please address all communications to:

Mr. H. M. Boodish
Chairman, Social Studies Department
Dobbins Vocational Technical School
Philadelphia 32, Pennsylvania.

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Just before the elections in South Korea, American Military Government officials asked the Department of the Army in Washington, D. C., for films to teach democratic voting procedures to the Koreans. The Army sent three films to Seoul, Korea: "How We Elect Our Representatives," produced by Coronet Films; "Ballot Boxes," a Canadian production; and "Tuesday in November," which had been produced for the Department of State. In Seoul, the films were sent with an interpreter on a tour of towns and villages of Korea.

On election day, 80 per cent of Korea's voters went to the polls. Military government officials stated that the films had performed an invaluable educational service.

CORONET INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS

"Purchase" or "Lease Purchase" of each of the following Coronet Instructional Films is \$90 for color and \$45 for a black and white film. The films are also available at leading film-lending libraries. For information on Purchase, Lease-Purchase, Preview prior to purchase, or rental sources, write to Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

In the Social Studies Field:

Capitalism. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: James Harvey Dodd, Professor of Economics and Business Administration, Mary Washington College, University of Virginia.

Presenting a discussion of Capitalism by means of a high school radio forum, this film states the basic concepts of the capitalistic system, and shows its superiority over other systems. It is suitable for high school, college, and adult education levels.

Energy in Our Rivers. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Thomas F. Barton, Chairman, Department of Geography and Geology, Southern Illinois Normal University.

From the waterwheel to the massive dams and huge hydroelectric plants, the story of water power is told and illustrated for junior and senior high school students.

A Pioneer Home. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Viola Theman, Associate Professor of Education, Northwestern University.

Picturing the pioneer's home for elementary school children, the film shows its physical setting and equipment, the hard work it required, and some varieties of recreation afforded the pioneer and his family.

Your Family. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Viola Theman, Associate Professor of Education, Northwestern University.

By telling a story about the Brents, who represent a happy family, the picture aims to develop an understanding of the family as a social unit and the place of the individual in it. Suitable for primary grades.

A Visit to Ireland. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Seamus O'Duilleanga, Professor of Irish Folklore, National University of Ireland.

The film takes the audience on a trip through the Irish countryside and to the city of Dublin and the Lake of Killarney.

The content is suitable for intermediate, junior high, and senior high school levels.

Life in a Fishing Village. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Clyde F. Kohn, Associate Professor of Geography, Northwestern University.

To give the observer a better understanding of life in a fishing village, the film shows Nils Larson, a fisherman, and his family at work and at play. It is suitable for intermediate, junior high, senior high, and adult levels.

Modern Hawaii. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Clyde F. Kohn.

The "Paradise of the Pacific" is pictured as a spot of scenic splendor. Its economic prosperity, its strategic position with respect to transportation, its military usefulness contribute to Hawaii's being one of the most important possessions of the United States. The

film is designed for intermediate, junior high, senior high, college and adult levels.

In the Physical Education Field:

Baseball for Girls. Fundamental Techniques.

In the Physical Education Field:

One reel. Sound. Black and white. Collaborator: Mildred B. Wohlford, Associate Professor of Physical Education, State College of Washington.

This film shows fundamental techniques of ball-passing and shooting. It emphasizes the need for practice and the relationship of individual skill to the team's success. It is adapted to junior high, senior high, and college levels.

Basketball for Girls—Game Play. One reel. Sound. Black and white. Collaborator: Mildred B. Wohlford.

The film, demonstrating techniques such as pivoting, feinting, passing, screening, shooting, and handling rebounds, is designed for junior high, senior high school and college levels.

Softball for Boys. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Arthur T. Noren, Director, Special Services, Veterans Administration, Philadelphia, Pa.

The film demonstrates techniques, analyzing the individual player skills. The principles of team play are explained by illustrating them in actual game situations. The film is suitable for intermediate and junior high school grades.

In the Field of Health and Safety:

Safe Living at School. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Vivian Weedon, Curriculum Consultant, School and College Division, National Safety Council.

Under the guidance of two members of the Junior Safety Council the film portrays the safety features of a school, emphasizing courtesy, good housekeeping and skillful and correct actions. It is designed for members of primary, intermediate and junior high school grades.

How To Be Well Groomed. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Mary E. Weathersby, Head, Homemaking Education Department, Mississippi State College.

Demonstrating how personal appearance can be improved by good grooming habits, the film shows that good looks in boys and girls depend upon good health, good posture, cleanliness and neatness. A pleasing appearance is a factor in

extending the circle of a person's friends and his business opportunities. This film is designed for junior and senior high school pupils.

In the Field of Language Arts:

Build Your Vocabulary. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: John J. De Boer, Professor of Education, University of Illinois.

The need for an adequate vocabulary is demonstrated by the plight of a Mr. Thompson who is unable to express himself effectively at a Civic Association meeting because of his meager choice of words. The film illustrates effective methods of vocabulary building as Thompson overcomes his difficulty. The film is directed to the grade levels ranging from junior high through college and adult grades.

In the Field of Science:

Winds and Their Causes. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Walter A. Thurber, Professor of Science, State Teachers College, Cortland, New York.

From the crashing of a model airplane, junior and senior high school students receive an introduction to the study of winds and their causes.

In the Field of Mathematics:

Algebra in Everyday Life. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: R. Orin Cornett, Vice-President, Oklahoma Baptist University.

Algebra is a language of numbers used in everyday life. Three basic algebraic steps are observation, translation, manipulation and computation. These facts are illustrated by this film for the benefit of junior and senior high school pupils.

Geometry and You. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Harold P. Fawcett, Professor of Mathematics, Ohio State University.

For an appreciation of geometry, this film points out its practical importance in daily life. As they observe the film, junior and senior high school pupils identify themselves with its two actors. Jim and Bob, who are engaged in building a model porch. In this activity the audience will apply its knowledge of geometric forms and principles and thus learn and live geometry.

In the Field of Basic Study Skills.

Making the Most of School. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator:

Frederick G. Neel, Head, Department of Education, Canterbury College.

This film would persuade youngsters in the intermediate grades and in the junior high school that just "getting by" is not nearly as much fun as participating in class discussions, and taking an active interest in clubs and sports.

In the Field of Business and Economics:

Your Thrift Habits. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Paul L. Salsgiver, Director, School of Business, Simons College.

Teaching thrift to elementary through senior high school grades, this film advocates and demonstrates setting up a budget for systematic saving, buying carefully and doing without extravagances.

Installment Buying. One reel. Sound. Color or

black and white. Collaborator: Albert Haring, Professor of Marketing, Indiana University.

The story of young Dr. Harris' trials and tribulations in furnishing his first office teaches the observer, whether he is a junior high school pupil or an adult, to ask himself three questions before buying on credit: Is the article worth buying on installments? Can I afford it? Am I getting the best installment terms?

Per Cent in Everyday Life. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: H. C. Christofferson, Professor of Mathematics, Miami University.

Intermediate and junior high school pupils learn the usefulness of a working knowledge of per cent by watching the principal player in this film figure commissions, taxes, interest, and discounts.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

THE FOURTH R

In *The Clearing House* for February there appeared a very pertinent article by Leon E. Burgoyne on a topic that is of increasing concern to many people interested in education. The author attacked the failure of modern, "progressive" educational theories to recognize the need for stricter training in the fundamentals of knowledge and in particular a "fourth R"—Respect. There are a great many people, not necessarily old fogies, who believe that young people today lack respect for work, for ethical values, for their teachers and parents, for school property and that of others, and for the rights of those around them. Granted that each generation tends to feel that way about the next, there is much concrete evidence to support the view that there has been a real change for the worse in the past couple of decades. There is a definite increase in the number of high school youth who fail to adjust satisfactorily to the realities of college, of employment, of military service or of community living on their own responsibility. The broken marriages, the crime and delinquency rate, the complaints of

employers about the quality of available workers, and the countless instances of social and economic irresponsibility on every hand all confirm the opinion that something is lacking in our system of training children.

It is easy to look to society and the home as the source of the trouble. The freedoms and the opportunities for amusement afforded children by most families today are much greater than ever before. Home supervision and discipline are certainly less than in former generations. Then, too, much of the present-day social and political theory has a weakening effect on character. The vast increase in social welfare legislation and in government benefits to individuals of all kinds, though it does ameliorate many types of distress, also tends to create instability. It is easy for young people to grow up feeling that the good things of life come not from conduct, ability and effort but from protest, pressure, luck and knowing how to "figure the angles." When society gives too much to its members, not because they have earned it but merely because they *are* members, it threatens to dissipate respect for worth and obscures the

basic truth that nothing in this world is free. One must either earn what one gets, or take it from someone else who has earned it.

Although we can easily blame youth's faults on weakened home training and social paternalism in government, we cannot by any means absolve the school. Modern educational theory as taught by some of the most highly regarded theorists and graduate schools of education has for years been preaching the doctrines of democratic living and self-expression. In its more extreme forms it has resulted in the so-called "progressive" types of education where pupils are far more likely to acquire respect for their own whims than for any more hardy virtues. Mr. Burgoyne in his article cites the instance of a professor of education who maintained that the children should plan their own program each day; when asked what to do if they decided to pop corn, he replied that they should be allowed to pop corn. It is difficult to see how this kind of muddy thinking can provide preparation for a world where nearly everyone is constantly confined by rules, requirements, routines and obligations frequently at variance with his personal whims. The kind of self-expression and individualism that needs development is that which shows itself in the accomplishment of achievements for the common good and for desirable purposes, and not in the vagaries of self-centered, aimless and undisciplined personalities.

Is there not some significance in the fact that the people to whom society accords the most genuine respect are those who through self-discipline, application to duty and hard work have acquired an expert knowledge and competence in some worth-while field? Modern educationists of the progressive school decry the importance of subject matter learning; they hold that what the child studies should be dictated by his immediate interests. In doing so he will learn faster and be free from the warped personality that is supposed to come from being compelled to do something unwillingly. But the world still turns when in need to the scholars, scientists and skilled mechanics who have become expert in subject matter, not to the nicely adjusted individualists who were never taught how to face a job and hew to the line until it was mastered, no matter how distasteful parts of it might be.

Respect for work, respect for virtue, respect for skill and knowledge, respect for duty—these are the traits upon which society still pays off, no matter how cynical we may pretend to be. But they are traits which somehow have become neglected in the modern curriculum with its emphasis on pupil interest, its policies of mass promotions and its aversion to teacher control and disciplined activity.

Respect consists chiefly of two components, either separately or together. One is admiration, the other is a "healthy fear." We have respect for certain individuals because we admire them for what they are, or because we know that if we do wrong they will punish us. Similarly we respect certain attributes or abstract qualities such as duty, unselfishness, honesty or courage, either because we admire them *per se* or because we fear the consequences of flouting them. In any case respect implies the recognition of something or someone better, stronger, wiser or more admirable than ourselves and hence requires the presence of humility and an appreciation of comparative values which is good for the soul of man. This is the essential quality which the more modern theories of education neglect too much. The child who goes through school without learning that real life brings punishment in some form for incompetence, insolence, selfishness, laziness or disobedience has not been educated. And as the educators themselves say a child should "learn-by-doing," he should be taught these lessons in the same way. When we in school refuse to punish a pupil for anti-social behavior or failure to meet reasonable standards of accomplishment in his work we are doing him a grave disservice.

There is a great deal that is valuable in modern educational ideas, just as there was a great deal to be deplored in the old school of rote and rod. Our trouble has been that we have gone too far in the direction of softness in trying to get away from the extremes of hardness. In seeking to avoid the rigidity, formality and regimentation of the past we have swung over to a philosophy that too often condones weakness and selfishness. We have assumed that because a teaspoonful of our remedy will clearly help the patient, a gallon will work wonders with him. Like many theorists, our educational leaders who chart the latest fashions in peda-

gogy have failed to see that the logical conclusion of a trend or process is not always the most desirable one. The middle ground dictated by sound common sense is usually the safest and surest place on which to stand. It is time that the schools realized that the development of unfettered and undisciplined individualists can be at least as harmful to society as the production of brow-beaten, regimented robots. Neither is desirable; we need to cultivate the mean where self-respect and independence go hand-in-hand with respect for the good, the worthy and the right.

GROUP PRESSURE AND CENSORSHIP

One of the fundamental and most cherished doctrines of the democratic faith is freedom of thought and its communication. Its existence under law marks one of the chief distinctions between the free countries and those behind the Iron Curtain, where even musical creations must somehow conform to the current ideology. There are few points upon which public opinion in the democracies is more sensitive than the right to think, talk, write or otherwise communicate ideas without fear or favor. We abhor censorship in principle and accept it willingly only when it is needed to curb malicious slander or obvious pornography.

Recently a series of events has highlighted a trend toward a form of censorship that is not the less dangerous because it violates no law. This is censorship through the pressure of well-organized minority groups. Several instances will easily come to mind. Jews, for example, have for years objected to the presentation of Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice" on the stage or to its study in schools because of the presentation of the character of Shylock. Very recently, they have quite successfully fought the distribution of the English film, "Oliver Twist," because the villain Fagin is a Jew, and Scott's "Ivanhoe," now in production in Hollywood, is encountering the same objections because the characters include Isaac of York and his daughter, Rebecca. Presentations of the classic "Uncle Tom's Cabin" meet with the opposition of Negro pressure groups. Motion picture producers, in fact, find one of their most baffling problems to be the casting of screen villains.

If such characters are portrayed as recognizable members of any specific race, nationality, religion or profession there is almost sure to

be a concerted protest and boycott; since Hollywood depends for part of its profits on foreign distribution it must be particularly sensitive to this problem. The Catholic Legion of Decency is another example of self-appointed censorship of great power. No matter how worthy its aims, it constitutes nevertheless a small group of individuals which assumes to itself the power and infallibility of judgment to determine what millions of others may see. The power of the same religious minority recently showed itself also in the banning of *The Nation* from New York City schools, not because the magazine's political leanings are abhorrent to the majority of Americans but because two or three single articles were abhorrent to a minority of them.

So serious has this tendency toward sensitivity and censorship by pressure groups become that it is getting a good deal of deserved attention. Dr. John Haynes Holmes in *The Saturday Review of Literature* for February 26 wrote an article on the matter which is well worth wide reading and consideration. He points out that if bad characters in works of literary art cannot be depicted as real people with definite racial, religious or national associations and identities, they will be faceless and formless like the abstractions portrayed in medieval morality plays. The eternal fight between evil and good cannot be pictured in terms of ghosts; the protagonists must be realities. If members of a particular minority are held up to ridicule or contempt as a class, or if the same group were used as the source of all literary villains by common consent of writers, a clear case of persecution could be made out. But as Dr. Holmes points out, Bill Sikes is a greater villain than Fagin; should not the English protest his presence in the picture? Should not Americans protest the study of "Martin Chuzzlewit" because of its American characterizations? Should not Italians picket the Metropolitan when "Othello" is sung, because Iago is obviously one of them? As for Shylock, Dr. Holmes says that in his role of martyr and with his great speech beginning, "hath not a Jew eyes," he has helped more Jews than he ever hurt.

If in the "proper study of mankind" we must eliminate from consideration every unsympathetic type, or if in our speaking and writing we must never be unflattering to any person or idea which by extension could conceivably be

thought of as an indictment of a group, our boasted freedom of speech and thought will become a mockery. What these minority groups are asking, in effect, is that they have literary immunity while other races, religions and nationalities do not. This is not to say that minority groups, with long histories of real persecution, should not have any defense. But many of them are becoming over-sensitive to the point of exercising tyranny over the rights of others.

A literary work whose principal and clear purpose is to bring contempt upon a single group is a proper subject for that group's protest. But no one can possibly hold that such was the intention of Shakespeare, or Dickens, or Mrs. Stowe. Nor has it been shown that the purpose of the *Nation* articles was to attack and ridicule the Catholic Church as such; they were criticisms of certain dogmas and practices which influence Catholics in their social conduct and hence are of concern to society as a whole. The inevitable effect of these attempts at private censorship will be not only to endanger the right of free speech for everyone, but to bring upon these minorities the very kind of attitude they are seeking to avoid. Men have a way of feeling that those who protest too much about a fancied insult recognize a shot that has hit close home. The barring of "Oliver Twist" has done far more to identify Fagin with the Jewish people as a whole than the free showing of the picture could ever have done.

TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

This subject was discussed last month, with references to some articles in *High Points*. Another article in the same periodical for December is so worth while as to justify comment. It is a reprint of an article by Gabriel R. Mason which first appeared in *High Points* in 1935. It asks and answers a series of questions about the handling of controversial matters in the social sciences. The points-of-view given are sensible and logical, and deserve some summarizing here. Mr. Mason says that the teacher's aim should be to train students in arriving at conclusions from sound evidence and by scientific method. If this is properly done, the conclusions themselves will usually be sound. The teacher's function is to serve as "devil's advocate," challenging the pupil from whatever side is neces-

sary in order to make him think clearly. He should not express his personal opinions or attempt to indoctrinate. On the subject of democracy, all that is needed is a thorough study of the comparative advantages and disadvantages. As Mr. Mason says: "There is so much genuine good in democracy, that a classroom discussion of the subject under the guidance of a skilled teacher must needs lead students to a greater love and respect for democracy." Attitudes reached by conviction rather than by indoctrination and fiat are far more deeply rooted. The same policy holds true in the discussion of such anti-social topics as crime, lynching, war or political corruption. "In considering these topics in a liberal and pedagogical fashion, so little can be said by the class and teacher in defense of these evil practices that their inherent and intrinsic fallacies will themselves lead to ethical points of view of a desirable type."

Is this ban on indoctrination a violation of academic freedom? Mr. Mason's answer is so well put that it must be quoted at length:

The principle of academic freedom applies only in a limited sense to teaching in high schools. Academic freedom is the privilege of a scholar or a thinker to pursue his quest of truth untrammelled by the necessity of conforming to accepted opinion, and to present his views to the world to be judged on their own merits by competent persons. No one can justify a teacher in using this privilege to air his views in a classroom, where he is subject only to the critical scrutiny of immature minds. An intelligent and fair-minded teacher will not stoop to accept this advantage; he will not gain comfort in recruiting young converts to his pet theories; and he will not consider his rights to academic freedom abridged when free, frank and full discussion of both sides of every controversial question is permitted.

This expresses the wisest attitude toward the whole problem about as well as it has been done, and should be a guide to every teacher who faces the question. If the things we believe in are indeed true and right and worthy, we need never be afraid of letting the evidence do our teaching for us.

MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The spring meeting of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies will be held on April 29-30, 1949, at the Garden City Hotel, Garden City, Long Island, in cooperation with the Long Island Social Studies Council. On Friday afternoon, April 29, there will be a trip to Lake Success. Dinner at the cafeteria, which has an international character, an address by a U. N. official, and an opportunity to see parts of the United Nations at work, will be included. At the sessions on Saturday morning the theme, *America's Heritage of Freedom*, will be developed. There will be sectional meetings for el-

ementary, secondary, and college teachers. At the luncheon, Dr. T. V. Smith, former congressman from Illinois, author, philosopher, and professor at the Maxwell School of Citizenship, Syracuse University, will speak on "The Real Issue Between Us and Russia." In the afternoon, Judge Robert V. Bolger, of the Orphans' Court of Philadelphia, will, through a discussion of specific cases with students and teachers, show how the Supreme Court of the United States has interpreted the Bill of Rights.

The Middle States Council invites all who may be interested to attend its sessions. Inquiries may be sent to Eleanor W. Thompson, Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Book Reviews and Notes

Edited by DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

History of the United States: By Dwight L. Dummond, Edward E. Dale, and Edgar B. Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948. Pp. xvi, 847. Illustrated \$3.20.

As a textbook for the senior high school course in American history, this new *History of the United States* presents a "different" type of organization. Five themes in the American story are examined; (1) Migrating and Settling; (2) Making a Living; (3) Living Together; (4) Building a Government; (5) Rising Among Nations. Each of these is considered for the same seven epochs or chronological divisions, which are based on our war periods.

While it is claimed that this organization makes possible either the chronological or the topical approach, this reader feels that a teacher would have difficulty doing either well without a good deal of reorganization. Generally, the period before the Civil War has significant trends which involve a fusion of the five themes: the orientation of our new government, nationalism, sectionalism. The teacher who wishes to present a continuous story of the labor movement, for example, would have to assign isolated paragraphs found in the "Living Together" and "Making a Living" sections. Slavery, when considered as part of a theme from 1848 to 1877, may not give pupils its significant re-

lationship to the Civil War as a factor apart from the status of the Negro during the Reconstruction period. This reviewer, however, is ready to admit a "bias" for the teaching of United States history since 1865 in broad problem units.

There are, on the other hand, many interesting accounts which, no doubt, result from the organization followed by the authors: the story of British-American antagonism during the 1820-1848 period (Pp. 313-314); the stress on the creation of the public domain as a unifying force (p. 127); the description of types of water transportation in use in the early 1800's; the interesting details on duelling and gambling; the intersectional migrations during the recent depression and war years. Many of these accounts should stimulate interest on the part of high school pupils.

The authors are to be commended for those aspects which make the book a helpful teaching aid. The vocabulary should not be difficult for average high school juniors and seniors; the prints and pictures are integrated into the text and are in good taste; such maps as the one depicting the Westward movement of the new settlements (p. 48), the graph on sectional interests and the ratification of the constitution, and the column comparison of govern-

mental policies before and after 1920 are well done. One might question some of the date lists because of their length (p. 652), and the listing of persons for study not discussed in the text (p. 31). The inexperienced teacher will, however, gain a great deal from the questions listed for study and the suggested activities. Particularly useful are those which emphasize current applications of the material discussed in the chapter: "Is there complete religious toleration in the United States today?" (p. 66); "What manufactured products in daily use in the home are the result of standardization and mass production?" (p. 485). The "Glossary" emphasizing the special meanings of words, terms and phrases used in American history should prove a worth-while appendix to the text.

The book does not solve for this reader a perennial problem: how to include in a volume of less than 1,000 pages the necessary facts and the significance of these. Too often this *History of the United States* reads like an outline book: nothing is said of the importance of the Declaration of Independence as a living document; the Hamilton-Jefferson controversy is inadequately explained and Hamilton's contribution to our history is indeed underemphasized; again one seeks in vain for more than cursory reference to the part played by outstanding women, and the positive contribution of the Negro to the American story.

With the variety of approaches now being followed in the senior high school history course, this new textbook should prove to be popular with teachers who will be able to make the necessary adaptations for their needs.

N. BROWN

Central High School of Needle Trades
New York City

The Young Henry Adams. By Ernest Samuels. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. Pp. 378. \$4.50.

History teachers need no introduction to Henry Adams. They know him as the author of one of our great histories—the nine volumes that tell the story of the first sixteen years of the nineteenth century. Many of them also know the Henry Adams who wrote the rather cynical *Education*, a volume that has been misunderstood more often than otherwise. The Henry Adams who wrote histories and novels

and biographies and philosophical works was a mature man and a disappointed man. The grandson and great-grandson of Presidents of the United States, the son of Charles Francis Adams, who might have become President had the Liberal Republicans had the foresight to nominate him in 1872, it was only natural for this other Adams to think of himself as a potential leader and statesman. When such a career did not open up for him, he turned to literature and to scholarship. He never found in his success in this new area any real compensation for the earlier frustration.

Mr. Samuels, a professor of English at Northwestern, has concerned himself with the early period of his subject's life—the period prior to 1877. He has sought the influences that shaped the thinking and writing of the later years. Here are the years of Adams's history professorship at Harvard, of his editorship of the *North American*, of his intellectual Odyssey. This was the period when he was still yearning for a career in statecraft. Yet, as the author points out, he had always had a bent for research and for writing. These years were excellent preparation for the career that was to open later.

The author's aim, as stated in the Preface—"I have not aimed at a definitive or complete biography of the earlier Henry Adams but have desired rather to provide a coherent body of fact with a modicum of interpretation which may be useful to the critical reader of Adams's major writings," has been realized. This is a provocative and interesting volume, one that sheds much genuine understanding on the early life of one of our great historians. As such it will prove of interest to many teachers and students of American history.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State Teachers College
Cortland, New York

The World, Its Lands and Its Peoples. By Zoe A. Thralls. Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1948. Pp. xii, 488. Illustrated. \$3.40.

Geography does not seem to be taught as such in many of our schools. The core curriculum and the all-embracing "social studies" are supposed to include some study of places and peoples. How well that is done depends

on numerous factors, not the least of which is the teacher's knowledge of the subject. Whether or not geography is taught as a distinct subject is not really important, so long as the boy and girl get to know something of this world of ours before they finish school. Certainly, the concept of "one world," thrust upon us by the airplane and the radio, and made poignantly real for all of us by World War II, makes it a "must" for students to become familiar with the lands and peoples of the world.

Professor Thralls' book both senses and fulfills this need. Fortunately, the approach is not that of the old time geography books, with their emphasis on capitals, latitudes, longitudes, mountain ranges, and plateaus. All these topics are found in this book also, but the subject is treated in a more functional manner. If geography may be thought of as the study of the interaction of man and his environment, then the author has written a book which adheres basically to this newer concept.

The World, Its Lands and Its Peoples is well organized and logical in its coverage. It begins first with an explanation of the interrelationship between climate and culture (economic and social). Professor Thralls then analyzes each climatic region of the earth in a manner that gives the student a clear picture of global patterns at work. By studying a climate type, the reader is able to see that peoples all around the globe—under the same climatic conditions—face similar problems.

The style of the text is natural and easy flowing. Certain sections, like the description of the Bedouins of Arabia, read almost like an adventure story. The sentence structure is simple and the vocabulary, excluding the technical words pertaining to the study of geography, not above the junior high school level. However, the material is of such a nature that it can be adapted to the senior high school. Of additional value, both to the student and to the teacher, are the maps, pictures, and other visual materials necessary for developing geographical concepts.

H. M. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational Technical School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Aids to Geographical Research. By John K. Wright and Elizabeth T. Platt. New York:

Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. xii, 331. \$4.50.

In history, and perhaps some of the other social studies, bibliographies of bibliographies are not uncommon. In geography, however, only one publication has had the unique distinction of serving such a purpose in the English language. For almost a quarter-century, since 1923, John K. Wright's *Aids to Geographical Research* served the needs of students, teachers, librarians, and research workers in geography and allied fields. As the field of geography expanded and developed, this volume grew hopelessly out-of-date. Dr. Wright, now Director of the American Geographical Society in New York, and the late Miss Platt, for many years Librarian of the same Society, undertook a complete revision of this scholarly compilation. The present edition is the result of this endeavor. Dr. Wright carried on the work alone after Miss Platt's death.

While it is, of course, intended primarily for the use of geographers, *Aids to Geographical Research* will also be found highly useful to any student or researcher dealing with regions of the world or with specific phenomena. Thus, historians, sociologists, anthropologists, economists, and political scientists should find this publication particularly valuable in their work. The non-geographer will find of especial interest and stimulation the first part of the 38-page Introduction, wherein are briefly and clearly expounded "The Nature of Geographical Studies" and the principal motives for geographical investigation. The "sense" of geography is well brought out here and the differences between its main schools of thought alluded to very briefly yet comprehensively. The rest of the Introduction serves as an explanatory aid to the use of the bibliographic sections which follow.

The bibliography is divided into three sections. The first, on "General Aids," deals with bibliographies of general reference works and bibliographies, general geographical bibliographies, geographical institutions, geographical periodicals and series, general geographical manuals, gazeteers and related works, travelers' manuals and guidebooks, bibliographical aids to maps and cartography, and general world atlases. The second section deals with "Topical Aids" and covers such subjects as historico-

geographical studies, geographical education and methodology, physical and mathematical geography, plant and animal geography, human geography and related fields. The third section of the bibliography takes up "Regional Aids" and the important geographical journals published in the principal countries of the world. A quite thorough world coverage both in the way of bibliography and periodicals is included in this section.

This is the type of reference book which belongs on the shelves of all good libraries, public and institutional. It is essential for any serious worker in geography and the related social studies.

JULIUS KAIKOW

City College of New York
New York City

British Rule in Palestine. By Bernard Joseph. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. 273. Cloth, \$3.75; Paper, \$3.25.

Did the Balfour Declaration of November 2, 1917, and the League Mandate, effective on September 29, 1923, promise and provide that Palestine should be the Jewish national home, or for a Jewish home in Palestine, or for a Jewish national home in Palestine? Joseph, soldier in the Jewish Legion in the British Army in 1918, Palestinian lawyer since 1922, and Military Governor of Jewish Jerusalem since July, 1948, contends that "all Palestine as the national home" was the original British promise and the intent of the Mandate. This—the first interpretation—means an independent Jewish Palestine; the second one means merely a Jewish asylum ruled by Arabs, and the third means partition of Palestine into independent Jewish and Arab states.

The author cites action by the United States in support of his contention. By separate convention with Britain on December 3, 1924, we consented to British administration pursuant to the Mandate. Congress, later, on December 19, 1945, by resolution, "approved free Jewish immigration into Palestine . . . with the upbuilding of Palestine as the Jewish national home." However, our intent has been obscured by a delphic statement in a letter of October 29, 1946, of President Truman to the King of Saudi Arabia. The President stated that his

government "took the position . . . also that a national home for the Jewish people should be established in Palestine." The President may not have intended to be delphic, but others can interpret his letter as they please.

The same British interpretation of the Balfour Declaration, the Mandate provisions, and other statements earlier compromised Jewish hopes. British unilateral interpretations have left the door wide open for any interpretation that suited British-Arabian interests. By Orders-In-Council since 1920, the British had set forth all the changes on legal technicalities, interpretations, re-interpretations, re-readings of meanings into the Balfour Declaration and the Mandate. They had, states Joseph, transposed words and interloped words and phrases so as to delimit the Jewish area, rule, and immigration. This whittling down of these two "international laws" (Declaration and Mandate) was done to appease the Arabs for some British interest. The Arabs feared that free Jewish immigration would mean Jewish hegemony and the discrimination against the Arab "race" and religion. Oil politics are not mentioned as the reason for British policy and actions.

Since millions of Arabs live in seven independent states surrounding Palestine, it seems unlikely that the Jews could discriminate if they would. While the Arabs obtained these seven free states, the Jews received only promises—and worse—while they had given direct military aid to Britain in two world wars. The Palestine Arabs did nothing in World War I to aid the British, according to Colonel Lawrence, Lloyd George, Major Jarvis, and Ernest Main. Moreover, the Arabs only ruled Palestine for twenty-two years after their conquest there in A. D. 635. Thereafter, many invaders ruled over Jews and Arabs until 1071, when the Seljuk Turks assumed jurisdiction. They were finally displaced by the Ottoman Turks in 1516 who, in turn, surrendered jurisdiction to the Allied Powers in 1917.

Despite British promises, the Mandate has been whittled down, with the result that the Jews lost areas, political jurisdiction, and other rights. Tom Williams, in Parliament in 1939, thus described the process: Transjordan lopped off in 1921; restriction on immigration in 1922

in "accord with economic absorptive capacity"; restriction of Jewish land purchases in 1933; British acceptance of partition in 1937 and then rejection in 1938; and finally, the *White Paper* of 1939, restricting Jewish immigration to 1,500 persons a year. His denunciation of the British *White Paper* was supported in Parliament by Noel-Baker, Churchill, Amery, Morrison, and the Archbishop of Canterbury. Atlee, in 1940, also denounced British violation of the League Mandate Commission Report. This Commission characterized the *White Paper* of 1939 as incompatible with the Mandate and therefore illegal.

Joseph does not discuss the guerilla warfare since 1939, nor other events and diplomatic maneuvering since then. Evidently, he is content to show that *all* Palestine was promised the Jews and that the British had violated this promise and the Mandate. In this major breach of faith, the British have made other specific violations, such as denying to the Jews personal civil liberties by issuing *lettres de cachet*, and by imposing longer prison terms for the disregard of British decrees restricting Jewish immigration than for the commission of murder or the harboring of murderers. Politically, the Jews had no responsible government in Palestine. For example, in Tel Aviv, while electing a council, they could not elect the mayor. In Jerusalem, although they constituted the majority of the population, they had a minority in the city legislature while no Jew was appointed mayor. Since 1920 the British have been derelict in their duty to defend the Jews from Arab attack, while the British were always prompt and efficient in defending themselves when attacked by the Arabs.

Only an independent Jewish state of *all* Palestine, declares Joseph, can constitute justice and give proper recompense for aid to the British, and for two thousand years of world persecution, climaxed since 1938 by the killing of 6,000,000 European Jews by the Nazis.

RALPH B. GUINNESS

F. K. Lane High School
Brooklyn, New York

Encyclopedia of Vocational Guidance. Edited by Oscar J. Kaplan. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Two volumes. \$18.50.

Compiled primarily for the use of those who have a small professional library, these volumes will prove valuable to social studies teachers responsible for the courses in occupations. Those interested in community surveys, testing or related topics will also appreciate them.

Dr. Kaplan has performed a real service in compiling much of the material usually classified under vocational guidance into so usable a form. The volumes include important material on tests and testing, counseling, placement, guidance in foreign countries and similar topics. The articles have been written by outstanding leaders in the field. They vary in length from two to ten or more pages.

Unlike the traditional encyclopedia, the present volumes are of greatest value to those already somewhat familiar with their contents. The detailed explanations and background necessary for those who would practice vocational guidance are not provided. While the information given is pertinent and sound, no claims are made that it is exhaustive. The articles on tests, for example, are of greatest value to refresh the memory of teachers or counselors already acquainted with them. The novice may acquire some vague understanding of the purpose or use of an instrument such as the T. A. T., or Rorschach. But the method of administration, the content and the scoring call for supervised clinical experience and cannot be learned from a book.

The absence of an index seems deplorable in any book to be used for reference. Articles supposedly are arranged alphabetically, yet many topics seem poorly placed. Unless the reader knows that they are personality tests and happens to look under that topic, he will be unable to locate discussions of such instruments as the Bernreuter, the Minnesota Multi-Phasic, and other tests. Many readers will also be irritated when forced to turn back to a list of authors in Volume I in order to decipher the initials following an article.

Despite these mechanical defects, teachers interested in this field will find these volumes welcome additions to their personal libraries. Most schools will wish to have them available for the reference of their teachers.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN

Cornell University
Ithaca, New York

Austria from Habsburg to Hitler. By Charles A. Gulick. Foreword by Walther Federn. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1948. Two vols. Pp. xx, 1906. \$20.00.

This formidable, but literally indispensable, work is in the grand and spacious tradition. It assumes in its readers an absorbing interest in richly detailed monographic—in places even microscopic—analysis and exposition. After serving an apprenticeship in Modern European history, Professor Gulick crossed over the aisle to economics; consequently, his interests are broad and varied, and he refuses to pass by anything that interests him. No facet of Austrian public life in the troubled era from 1918 to the Nazi occupation has been omitted and frequently events are illuminated by useful excursions into earlier history.

Gusto and energy are qualities of this study. Industry, too, for the author has meticulously combed the contemporary press, memoirs, apologies, and evidence produced at the Nuremberg trials—all of which is reinforced by conversations with eye-witnesses of events during two scholarly missions to Austria. Where the testimony falters, he candidly acknowledges just that. His approach is sympathetic to the Social Democrats. An able chapter portrays the furious ideological struggle within party circles which was won by men who were Marxian in fundamental theory but Fabian in practice.

In the first volume the accent is laid upon the comprehensive program of social reform carried through by the Social Democrats acting alone or in temporary alignment with their arch-rivals, the Catholic Christian Social party. That program effectively counteracted the siren appeal of Bolshevism. Fresh and vivid light is thrown on educational innovations, the municipal housing achievements in Vienna—the subject of a chapter of a hundred pages—and how the reforms were financed.

We are reminded, too, that the Social Democrats strove vainly in 1919 for *Anschluss* with what they hoped would be the democratic Socialist state of Germany. Against the Social Democrats, the forces of Austrian traditionalism, whom Gulick prefers to call the "Clerical Fascists," fought with tooth and nail once the shock of military defeat and the confusions of

the immediate aftermath of the war had worn off.

How the "Clerical Fascists" gained the upper hand after 1927, the pathological nature of the Dollfuss-Schuschnigg "counter-revolution," and the hapless struggle for survival against Nazism form the body of volume two. The impact of the Great Depression and of developments in other countries, notably Germany, upon Austrian affairs is competently explained. Gulick draws up a convincing indictment of Dollfuss and Schuschnigg for thinking, as Seipel before them, that the supreme enemy of the Austrian Republic was not the Nazis, but the Social Democrats, who were in fact the only genuinely democratic party in the country.

The sanguinary suppression of Social Democracy in 1934 by forces which distrusted the democratic faith and which played ducks and drakes with Vatican social doctrines heralded the eventual triumph of demonic and dynamic National Socialism. Gulick explodes legendary interpretations of Dollfuss and Schuschnigg which have been circulated in the western world. The contention that they were driven along the path they pursued by the Hitlerian menace is dismissed as absurd.

Although Professor Gulick's knowledge is astonishing, one wonders whether he does not sometimes deal a trifle inadequately with earlier history. His estimate, for example, of municipal Socialism in Vienna before World War I is open to dissent. Where so much has been given us, it may seem a mark of gluttony to ask for more, but sharply etched portraits of the leading figures would have been welcome—the more so since the author was personally acquainted with so many of them.

Evidence not available to Gulick may compel revisions in his emphasis, and there are occasional infelicities in his prose. Nevertheless, this massive work ranks high above other publications on the subject, and the main lines of interpretation promise to stand up against all challengers.

ARTHUR J. MAY

University of Rochester
Rochester, New York

The Abuse of Learning: The Failure of the German University. By Frederic Lilje. New

York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. vi, 184. \$2.75.

The collapse of the German learned world at the mere sight of the rising Nazi regime is a startling phenomenon. It is in the sharpest contrast to the extremely high prestige the German scholar enjoyed all over the world, and with the apparent earnestness and profundity which any educated German used to display when speaking of his nation's "Kultur." How could it have happened? This must be a burning question in the mind of a person who, like the author, grew up in that German cultural atmosphere. As a student of the history and philosophy of education the author undertakes to answer the question.

In Wilhelm von Humboldt, Lilje introduces the best representative of the brief flowering of German humanism which advocated, about 1800, the cultivation of individuality with as little state interference as possible. The German idealist philosopher, Fichte, on the other hand, had already proposed at that time a centralized institute for the indoctrination of the German elite with one brand of philosophy in the manner of such extreme nationalism that the author can ask whether Fichte might not have supported the Nazis.

In the course of the nineteenth century the rise of the exact sciences brought about the eclipse of idealist philosophy. For the leading men of this era, the university was almost exclusively the place of a cooperative effort to advance research and with it the progress of human society. The German university gained its world-wide prestige, but pushed specialization to such an extreme that the leaders themselves became alarmed. General education was grossly neglected; the individual had to be satisfied with his inescapable role as a little wheel in the big scientific machine. Popularizers propagated a crude and barren materialistic philosophy.

Nietzsche and the Swiss historian Jacob Burckhardt sensed with great apprehension the catastrophic trends of the times; but Nietzsche's criticism furnished weapons for those who attacked the great liberal heritage and indulged either in esthetic cults for an intellectual aristocracy or, like Spengler, worshiped power.

The last stand of rationalism was made after

World War I, by the sociologist, Max Weber, and the philosopher Max Scheler. The former stressed the inability of science to produce a philosophy of life and yet desired an academic atmosphere in which the student could acquire one through his own efforts, while Scheler tried to devise institutes of higher education which aimed more directly at the integration of human personality. Neither was able to turn the tide.

The author presents these various views mainly by discussing the chief pronouncements of the leading men. Since his space is limited, it will at times be hard for the reader to obtain an adequate picture if he is not already familiar with the trends discussed. The author does not attempt to give a general intellectual history; the reader will have to draw some connecting lines for himself and will have to provide the background. A discussion of the Nazi system of education is not included, although the reader might expect the book to end with that height of the abuse of learning.

HENRY BLAUTH

Stanford University
Stanford University, California

The Study of History; With Helpful Suggestions for the Beginner. By Richard H. Bauer. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 36. 45 cents.

Acclimatizing high school graduates to the college history course is a problem which perennially plagues the conscientious college instructor. Mr. Bauer's efforts to solve that problem in his teaching experience at American University, Mary Washington College of the University of Virginia, and now at the University of Maryland, have called forth this publication of what he has found helpful. His booklet is printed on a good grade of paper in the two-column style befitting 7½" x 10½" pages. It is of very readable type and remarkably free from typographical errors.

The first of the ten brief chapters deals with "What History Is." Including, as it does, representative definitions from such leading historians as Charles A. Beard, Fred Morrow Fling, James Harvey Robinson, and James T. Shotwell, there is much here of help to the beginning student. The second chapter, "Why Study History?" deals constructively with the question

of making history serve a didactic function, particularly with respect to patriotism. It is followed by eight brief chapters which attempt not only "to stimulate a greater interest in history" but also "to present some helpful suggestions." These suggestions, dealing with such mundane matters as maps, notebooks, and examinations, constitute the chief value of what is a very worth-while booklet.

Particularly helpful is the chapter on "The Reading of History" (Chapter VIII). The tenth chapter consists of sixteen "Miscellaneous Observations and Suggestions," which state clearly and convincingly lessons that beginning students of history should learn. It concludes with a suggestive list of further readings.

There has long need for such a book and Mr. Bauer is to be commended highly for having conceived of a valuable and unique work, and for having executed it well. Without sacrificing readability for the beginning student, he has succeeded in compressing much valuable material into a small booklet. The use of this booklet, under wise guidance, might very well transmute the desire of many college students from wanting to acquire a passing grade in a course in history to wanting to acquire an understanding of the course of history.

R. FENTON DUVAL

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Marriage for Moderns. By Henry A. Bowman. Revised Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. xi, 544. \$4.00.

This is a good book to aid young people in preparing for marriage. It is the product of the author's experience in teaching a marriage course at Stephens College. While written primarily for students at the junior college level, it is well suited for secondary schools and discussion groups.

The discussions throughout the twenty-six chapters center around the questions young people most frequently ask about marriage. Using the student as a point of departure, the book discusses in a positive and constructive way such problems as: why people marry, how one can tell whether one is really in love, marriage versus the career, the best age for marriage, choosing a mate, courtship and engagement, wedding and honeymoon, personality adjust-

ment in marriage, the use of money and leisure time, and reproduction.

Proceeding on the assumption that marriage is for mature individuals, the author gives no simple rules for marital bliss, but insists that successful marriage is a creative achievement which requires healthy, mature attitudes, and sufficient effort to solve problems when they arise.

The revision retains the essentials of the chapters, epilogue, and glossary of the first edition. There is a new section on the role of religion in marriage adjustment and one on the Rh factor in heredity. The Dickinson and Belskie birth series, tables of marriage and divorce laws, and questions for classroom discussion have also been added. The questions are well selected and should serve as a valuable teaching aid.

The discussion of the importance of religion in marriage and its importance in marital adjustment is well done. The author's suggestion that the best solution to the problems of a mixed marriage is to avoid such a marriage may appear to be trite, but few students of marriage would disagree. His emphasis on sex adjustment as a phase of total personality adjustment is in keeping with the point of view of mental hygiene.

This is a thoroughly wholesome, well-written book which young people and others who are interested in a realistic approach to marriage can read with profit.

MORRIS S. GRETH

Muhlenberg College
Allentown, Pennsylvania

The Hickory Stick. By Virgil Scott. New York: Morrow and Company, 1948. Pp. 750. \$3.95.

Another novel about the school-teaching profession has just rolled off the presses—one not calculated, because of its extreme bitterness, to help the current drive to get more and better qualified young people interested in following teaching as a career. Young people who pick up Virgil Scott's *The Hickory Stick* will find it hard to lay aside again until they have reached page 750, but they are not likely to desire the teacher's way of life for themselves.

In one sense, that is too bad, for Mr. Scott presents a dated, and therefore misleading, pro-

file of the American teacher. He gives us a reasonably accurate account of the lot of the small-town teacher in the depression years of the 1930's; but the teacher of 1943 is in a position to bargain for much better conditions than his brother of a dozen years or more ago. Moreover, this is likely to be the case for the better part of another generation because of the unprecedented number of youngsters who will be entering the American school system.

In another sense, however, Mr. Scott has done public education a good turn. He tells the story of Doug Harris's bitter struggle, in the face of politics, avarice, and indifference of a small town's school board, to maintain his honor, integrity, and decency, and to keep his marriage from going on the rocks. Education will thank Mr. Scott if his book helps reduce politics, avarice and indifference.

In telling Doug's story, the author has ranted at those individuals, cliques, and forces that have operated (and, in a number of cases, still are operating) in American communities to reduce teachers to submissive, unimaginative, frustrated nonentities. He suggests that too many American communities, instead of looking for teachers with the qualities of leadership to guide and instruct their young, seek instead only those whom they can bend easily to established community prejudices and the whims of the local school board.

This reviewer would not go so far as the professor at an upstate New York university who is making the book required reading for all his students planning to teach English in secondary schools. Nevertheless, if the reader can blink at the overdrawn characterizations of some of the teachers and school board members peopling these pages, he may find the book worth while as well as interesting—though he will doubtless think it much too long.

WILLIAM J. SHORROCK

Civic Education Service
Washington, D. C.

The British Post Office. By Howard Robinson. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. xxx, 444. \$7.50.

The British Post Office has played a major role in the development of present-day postal practices and this is the first comprehensive

treatment of its development from the time of Henry III to the present. The leading persons in the rise of the postal service have been Joseph Allen; John Palmer, who introduced the mail coach; Rowland Hill, the father of the penny postage; and Sir Adrian Henniker Heaton, who promoted better service throughout the Empire.

The book opens with a discussion of the early methods of sending letters and messages by the early Greeks, Romans and others, including business houses, leagues of merchants, banking houses, as well as universities, which required messenger services of their own.

Queen Elizabeth stifled, rather than encouraged the development of the postal service. The Act of 1660, which "legally settled" the question of the Post Office, became the first of a series of laws for the regulation of postal matters. The rates were the same as in the previous Cromwellian Act. A one sheet letter was to be carried eighty miles for 2d, and beyond that distance for 3d. The rate to Paris was 9d. An order of 1666 required postmasters to indicate the arrival and dispatch of each mail in order that letters might be expedited.

Despite all care to keep mail moving, at best mail traveled only between three and four miles an hour. Stage coaches grew in popularity after 1660 and their number increased so rapidly that in the reign of Charles II it produced something like a revolution in travel. With the introduction of the mail coach, mail was speeded up.

As might be expected, as the postal service grew, abuses also became more numerous. Postal money was used for pensions, the government assumed the right to open mail, and the extraordinary growth of the franking system sapped the income of the Post Office. The opening of letters was prohibited by an Act of 1711, but the franking system remains to this day.

The introduction of the mail coach in 1784 marked a new era and it became the "last word" in travel and in the delivery of mail until the railroad, a century later, replaced the stage coach and the mail coach. The history of the mail coach, and the part it played in transporting mail, is a fascinating story. Travel by stage coach was anything but comfortable. Frequently passengers, while en route, voted as to

what inns the coaches should stop at and the length of the stops for meals and rest.

Gradually, mail was sent overseas to the various colonies. In the American colonies Franklin became the first postmaster. In 1787 mail service was extended into Ireland and gradually to every part of the Empire.

Until 1773, London was the only urban center where mail was delivered to homes and to business places. Elsewhere, those receiving or mailing letters had to go to the post office. There were constant complaints about the delay of mail which was partly due to too much red tape with which we in America are quite familiar.

The mail coach did not carry many passengers, for passenger service was chiefly by stage coach. Two of the fastest runs, if they may be called fast, were from Carlisle to Glasgow, and from Edinburgh to Aberdeen. The former run was about ninety-five miles and was made in nine hours and thirty-three minutes. The high speed attained by the mail coaches required frequent change of horses, the average run being about ten miles for a change in coach horses. Accordingly the 400 miles from London to Edinburgh required the services of 400 horses. It was necessary to replace about one-third of the horses every year. Even then, people figured in terms of minutes. It was suggested that if the mail guard assisted in changing horses, one and one-half minutes could be saved at each change.

On January 10, 1840, the postage stamp was born. Due to the attractiveness of the early stamps, collecting stamps soon became a hobby. The early stamps were prepared with the greatest of care to prevent forgery. The world's number one stamp, with a portrait of young Queen Victoria, remains to this day as one of the finest specimens ever produced.

Subsidies were used on the trans-Atlantic and other water routes. During World War I the regular overseas postal service was interrupted. Not until 1934 was there any general effort to carry mail by air. Great Britain, due to her conservatism, is one of the few countries today that does not use special air mail stamps. For the same reason she has been chary about printing stamps for special occasions. The first one of this kind came in 1924 and commemorated the British Empire Exhibition in 1924.

Two other special stamps were printed in 1935.

Since World War II, the work of the Post Office has expanded to the extent that it has become necessary to print 23,000,000 stamps every day.

The book is well illustrated by the use of plates, text figures, and maps.

SARAH MAURER

College of South Jersey
Camden, New Jersey

Our Own United States. By John Van Duyn Southworth. Syracuse, N. Y.: Iroquois Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 972. Illustrated. \$3.60.

Our Own United States, by a former dean and head of the history department of Hockaday Junior College of Dallas, Texas, is a splendid addition to the high school texts of recent publication.

The format of this book could hardly be improved. Large, clear type on good paper will be easy on the student's eye. Instead of the usual garish multi-colored maps, most of these maps of numerous types are in soft shades of blue—just as instructive and much more attractive. The many (269) illustrations are forceful and intriguing. Both maps and illustrations are larger than in the usual text, because parts of the margins are utilized.

The author's plan for this text is a compromise between the chronological and the unit, vertical, or topical approach. This compromise has caused a duplication of material in his twenty units of chapters which will necessitate the constant use of the very adequate index. By the same token, however, it may serve as a palliative review for the student. Many aids at the end of each unit will help both teacher and student.

Mr. Southworth has remembered his teaching days. In concise, terse statements he has made clear many obscure points. He is objective and has done much to combat narrow provincialism and isolationism by showing, time and again, the inter-relation among our problems and by proving that conditions in our country were so often contingent upon those in Europe. And, finally, he lightens up the serious discussion with humor which is apropos. After listening

to a morning radio program most of us will love the "punning parody" of the inventor of the audion tube who, in criticizing the programs, said; "This is De Forest's prime evil!"

Notwithstanding the recent action of the Smithsonian Institute, this reviewer is sorry that Samuel P. Langley is not mentioned. Like many historians, the author stresses Braddock's defeat at Fort Duquesne, but never mentions Forbes' victory there—surely nonetheless great because without battle. Robert Fulton, although he had lived abroad twenty years, was a Pennsylvanian, not a New Yorker; and the Pilgrims did not build log cabins: it was the early Swedish settlers in Pennsylvania who introduced that custom. But these points are trivial compared to the splendid selection, the worthwhile detail, and the fine interpretation of our history which has been used by Mr. Southworth.

LILY LEE NIXON

Peabody High School
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

All Our Years. By Robert Morss Lovett. New York: Viking Press, 1948. Pp. xviii, 373. \$3.75.

Robert Morss Lovett's *All Our Years* is the life history of a shy country boy, the son of a devout Puritan family, who outgrows his environment to become a fearless leader in international progressive movements. Through a gifted mentality and a high moral and physical courage, he became a leader among students and faculty, reformers, politicians, and intellectuals.

Mr. Lovett tells his own story simply and modestly. Its division into nineteen chapters is made according to his advancing years and his change of location from Harvard to Chicago, to Europe, to New York, and to the Virgin Islands.

As a prize student, he graduated at Harvard and became a teacher at the new, raw University of Chicago. Feeling himself an exile from Boston, he nevertheless devoted himself to his books and his students. Many of these students are the writers in current journalism and fiction. Here, too, Lovett wrote text books, novels, and plays for the dramatic society.

Today at seventy years of age, he is the world traveled, broadminded, progressive leader,

known as an organizer, writer, lecturer in every good cause for uplift of the downtrodden from the stock yards and Hull House to the discarded Negroes on the sugar plantations of Puerto Rico.

Though with a stern devotion to duty, Robert Morss Lovett has lived a good life. He has a fine family and many gifted friends. He enjoys sports and the out-of-door life. He has traveled widely and known pleasant homes in Maine and in California, in Germany and in France.

His wide interest in many societies for better living through better government drew upon him the attention of the Dies Spy Committee at Washington, and in spite of protests from citizens, senators, and cabinet members, Lovett was dismissed as secretary in the Virgin Islands. But his honesty, his dignity, and his wit under the inquisition of this Congressional committee did much to advertise the valuable work of the reforms he had undertaken, and to lower in national reputation the work of the congressmen on the Dies Committee.

From the progressive reforms Mr. Lovett had undertaken in the West Indies, he returned to a quiet cottage on a lake near Chicago. Here he finished his interesting memoir. While it is a frank story of one man's struggles, it will count much more than that, for it is a reliable history of the reforms attempted in politics and in government by men of intelligence, willing to sacrifice personal ease and comfort in the cause of progress. Thoughtful readers will all agree that Robert Morss Lovett has fought a good fight.

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Pamphlets

The Legation of Finland, 2144 Wyoming Ave., N. W., Washington 8, D. C., has prepared a very helpful booklet for free distribution on the subject of the *Democracy Progress of Finland*.

World History: A Unit Outline. Edited by Alfred Woods. New York: Cambridge Book Company, Inc., 1948. Illustrated, maps, and tests. Unit I, pp. xviii, 140; Unit II, pp. x, 133. 50 cents. Key, 15 cents.

Teachers will welcome this fine review book which can be used to cover a large amount of material in a short time.

A Study Guide. By Edgar B. Wesley. Boston, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948. Pp. xxxv, 46. Maps. 72 cents.

Guide book to accompany *History of the United States*, by Dwight L. Dummond, Edward E. Dale, and Edgar B. Wesley.

Our American Government. By Wright Patman. New York: Ziff Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. viii, 134. Illustrated. \$1.50.

The answers to 1001 quotations about the

national government and how it works.

Philadelphia: Greene Country Towne. Copies of this booklet may be obtained free from the Philadelphia Transportation Company, 1405 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pa. A splendid booklet for use in teaching local history, Pennsylvania history or the colonial period. *Brief Review in American History with World Backgrounds and Drill Exercises.* Published by the Colonial Book Company, Inc., 104 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, N. Y. 25 cents.

Articles

"America 50 years Ago," *Coronet* (January, 1949).

"Guiding Principles for Civic Education," by C. Leslie Cushman, *American Unity*, II (December, 1948).

The Old Erie Canal. Pioneer in Transportation. Edited by John Elmer Reed and John Irwin Cretzinger. Department of Internal Affairs, Harrisburg, Pa. Volume 17 Number 1 (December, 1948).

"Sparks from the Anvil." By Winston S. Churchill. *The Atlantic Monthly* (January, 1949).

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

American Me. By Beatrice Griffith. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948. Pp. iii, 339. \$3.50.

American Me is a book about children of America's last great immigration, the Mexican-Americans.

Geography of the World. By Leonard O. Packard, Bruce Overton, and Ben D. Wood. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xl, 488. Illustrated. \$4.00.

Geography of the World can be used effectively in a high school program of social studies or as a text for an independent course in geography.

The Maryland Germans. By Dieter Cunz. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. x, 476. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A book that throws a new light on German immigration to America in the seventeenth century.

Introduction to Research in American History.

By Homer Carey Hockett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. iii, 179. \$3.00.

Revised edition of a book that has been helpful to many students of history over a period of years.

The World Since 1914. Sixth Edition. By Walter Consuelo Langsam. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxx, 969. \$5.50.

The chief difference between this edition and previous editions is that five years of crowded history have been added: 1943-1948.

Love and Marriage. By F. Alexander Magoun. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. x, 369. Illustrated. \$3.00.

Love and Marriage is an outstanding textbook for college and university courses in parenthood and the family.

Lincoln Under Enemy Fire. By John H. Cramer. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1948. Pp. v, 138. \$2.50.

This book deals with a unique episode in American history.

Social Work. By Herbert Stroup. New York: American Book Company, 1948. Pp. xiv, 695. \$4.50.

A text that has been written to provide a readable, but responsible picture, of the nature of social work and its various functions at the present time.

Tomorrow is Beautiful. By Lucy Robins Lang. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxvi, 303. \$3.50.

A story of how Lucy Robins Lang led an adventurous life through four decades of labor battles in the United States.

Current Readings on International Relations. Number 4. Edited by Norman J. Padelford. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1948. Pp. ix, 273. \$1.50.

The material assembled in this fourth issue is excellent for college courses on international relations.

How We Become Americans. By Robert K. Speer, Ray Lussenhop, and Lena S. Blanton. New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., 1947. Pp. 376. Illustrated. \$1.60.

A text that should be a great help to teachers of elementary school social studies.

The Roots of Prejudice Against the Negro in the United States. By Naomi Friedman Goldstein. Boston, Mass.: Boston University Press, 1948. Pp. vi, 213. Illustrated. \$3.75.

This discussion of prejudice is a splendid illustration of the clear-eyed and thoroughgoing nature of the author.

Father Knockerbocker Rebels: How People Lived in New York City During the Revolution. By Thomas Jefferson Wertenbaker. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948. Pp. xi, 308. \$4.50.

Another fascinating book from the pen of a successful author.

The Liberal Presidents. By J. C. Long. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1948. Pp. xv, 226. \$3.75.

A book that will hearten Americans as to their future.

The Pageant of India's History. By Gertrude Emerson Sen. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 1948. Pp. xiii, 431. Illustrated. \$4.50.

An authoritative account of India before the European invasion.

An Introduction to Sociology. By Carl A. Dawson and Warner E. Gettys. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948. Pp. xxvii, 764. Illustrated. \$5.00.

The third edition of a highly successful college sociology textbook.